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## OUTLINES OF HEBREW GRAMLLAR.

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OF

## HEBREW GRAMMAR

BY

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REVISED BY THE AUTHOR, AND ANNOTATED BY THE TRANSLATOR

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WITH A LITHOGRAPHIC TABLE OF SEMITIC CHARACTERS

by Dr. J. EUTING.



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LEIPZIG:
Fo. BROCKIAUS.
1877.

PHILIP SCHÁFF, D.D., LL.D.,
PROFESSOR IN CNION THEOLOGICAL SEMINARI, NEW YORK, THIS TRANSLATION IS RESPECTFULLI DEDICATED.


## TRANSLATOR'S PREFACE.

THIS little work does not appear as a rival of the excellent grammars of Green and Davidson. It is rather designed for students in comparative philology, and for those who have already made some progress in Hebrew.

Although so modest in size that it may be mistaken for an elementary treatise, it should perhaps rather be considered as the most scientific discussion of the Hebrew language which has yet been produced.

While it was suggested by Justus Olshausen's "Lehrbuch", it is not an epitome of that work, but a really independent production.

Starting with the hypothesis that the Hebrew is not the most ancient member of the Semitic family of languages, the author has derived all the Hebrew forms by means of comparative analysis, from a more ancient Semitic language, which is best represented by the Arabic.

Although a competent? critic may differ from the author in some of his conclusions, he will still recognize the hand of a master, and will acknowledge that
the student may obtain a clearcr conception of the Hebrew forms, by the diligent study of this book.

The English edition is perhaps superior to the German in the following particulars. 1) The author has thoroughly revised and improved the original text. 2) The paragraphs on the prose and metrical accents have been added by Prof. Franz Delitzsch at the request of Prof. Bickeli. 3) A large table of Semitic characters, of which the Egyptian letters were furnished by Prof. Ebers, has been prepared by Dr. Euting of Strassburg, an eminent authority in this department.

The notes which are marked with a star, the table of contents, and the indexes, which were lacking in the German edition, have been added by the translator.

In closing, the translator tenders his best thanks to Prof. Bickell for his lively interest in the work, and to Prof. Delitzsch for many valuable suggestions.

Leipzig, Jenuary 1877.

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## I.

## HISTORY OF THE HEBREW LANGUAGE AND WRITING.

## 1. HISTORY OF THE LANGUAGE.

§. 1. The Semitic jamily of languages, which is thus named because all the descendants of Shem originally belonged to it, may be divided into three main branches: 1) Arabic together with Himyaric and Ethiopic; 2) Aramaic, which is indigenous to Syria, Mesopotamia and Babylon, including Syriac, Mandaic, Chaldee and Samaritan; 3) Hebrew with Phoenician or Canaanitic. The position of the unquestionably Semitic Assyrian of the cuneiform inscriptions and of the so-called half Semitic in Africa has not yet been definitely determined. All the Semitic languages are now dead except the Arabic, the Amharic and the Tigré, which are cognate with the old Ethiopic, Geez, and the remnants of the modern Syriae dialects in liurdistan and the Anti-Lebanon.
§. 2. The specific character of the present form of the Semitic family of languages consists in the dissyllabic nature of the roots, their apparently merely ideal and rowelless existence, and in the expression of
different shades of thought through internal inflection, that is through a change of the radical vowels, or the doubling of the radical consonants. This internal inflection howerer is merely apparent. Since it is a secondary, mechanical phenomenon which has arisen through vocal laws. Hence in itself it has nothing to do with the modification of the idea. ${ }^{1}$ The dissyllabic roots arose from the original monosyllable in a prehistoric age, before there was any sharp discrimination between the noun and the rerb, through reduplication, addition of suffixes, insertion of vowels and in other ways. This is indicated by the pronominal roots; the conjugation pilpel, e. g. לֹּ kithel, which was originally lalkala from the root $3 \boldsymbol{2}$; and through the lindred signification of many roots which have tro consonants in common.
§. 3. It follows from the preceding paragraph, that in the manner of formation ${ }^{2}$, there was originally

[^0]no difference between the Semitic and the other families of languages, and that nothing prevents the assumption of a common origin. Moreover a nearer relationship of the Semitic with the Indo-Germanic and Egyptian is unmistakable, although the laws for the substitutions of sounds do not yet seem to be established with absolute certainty. ${ }^{1}$
§. 4. Although the Hebrew has a more ancient literature than any of the Semitic family, yet other members of that family have preserved a more antique form. A large proportion of the dentals, which have all been retained in Aramaic, has been in Arabic partially, and in Hebrew as well as in Ethiopic and Assyrian entirely, changed to sibilants so that the Aramaic $d(-), t(\pi), t(\because)$ frequently correspond to the Arabic
do not exclude each other but are rather to be considered as successire stages in the derelopment of language. Originally there were only monosyllabic roots (isolation), which at first were human echoes of an audible action, and with which were connected other sensuous significations by enallage sensuum and supersensuous ones by analogy. Some roots gradually became affixes (agglutination) through connection with others under a common accent. Then through the purely mechanical interaction of the roots and affixes upon each other, and other vocal laws, which were generally connected with the accentuation, an apparent change of the root itself arose (internal inflection). Inflection is simply the joining together of roots, hence the symbolism of sound only obtains in the formation of roots, lut never in the inflection. The same principles explain other supposed Semitic peculiarities, e. g. the occurence of pronominal suffixes (which are also found in the Indo-Germanic Persian), and prefixes (just as ego sum and sum ego are one and the same).
$1 *$ For the reciprocal relation of the Indo-Germanic and Senitic family see Friedrich Delitzsch's "Studien über IndogermanischSemitische Wurzelverwandtschaft", Leipzig 1873.
 The short vowels in Hebrew are commonly heightenel in the accented syllable, and in the first open syllable preceding the accent, while on the contrary they vanish from the second open syllable preceding the accent leaving only a shẹ̆va behind them. The vowel consonant $v$ is very frequently transformed to $y$ without the influence of an $i$. The short vowels are often rejected at the end of a word, hence the insertion of an auxiliary vowel is often occasioned. The earlier wealth of forms has, in consequence of the falling away of the final vowels, and the disappearance of many varieties of inflection, only partially maintained its place. In all these respects, especially in its vocalization, the Arabic is the more ancient language, since it is determined by only a few vocal laws, especially those which concern the vowel consonants, almost all of which existed already in the primitive Semitic.
§. 5. With reference to dialectical differences only this is certain that the Ephraimites pronounced $\check{s}(\ddot{\ddot{*}})$ like $s$ (o) Jud. xii, 6. Bötteher's ${ }^{1}$ discovery of three provincial dialects Epluaimitic, Judaic and Simeonitic in the text of the Old Testament is not satisfactorily established. - On the other hand the poetry is distinguished from the prose of the Scriptures as follows; 1) through the rhythmical parallelism of the two members of each verse, 2) partially through the mion of verses into strophes, 3 ) linguistically through the use of peculiar designations, especially epitheta ornantic c. g.
 of prey, Job. xxviii, 8; xli, 26, 4) through fuller

[^1]unapocopated or uncontracted forms. Compare '̀s ' $e l$,
 'alay, further the suffixes of the 3. plural masc. in $i z$, $m \hat{o}$, instead of $\mathrm{r}-,-m$, etc.
§. 6. The language of the oldest Mosaic period i. e. in the Pentateuch, when compared with that of a later age, exhibits lexical as well as grammatical archaisms. The use of the masculine form win insteal of the feminine The former is employed in the Pentateuch one hundred and ninety five times, while the latter occurs only eleven times. In the same way the masculine form $n a^{\circ}(a)$ r is used instead of the feminine $n a^{i}(a ̆)$ ráa with only one exception, Deut. xxii, 19. The pronouns $\boldsymbol{-}$

 in the Pentateuch. There are masculine infinitives from tertiae vav and yodh roots, as -ieursó', Gen. 1, 20,

 titt, nẹ̆tint, Numb. xx, 21; Gen. xxxviii, 9, fuller endings e. g. $\hat{u}$ for $\hat{u}$ in the plural of the perfect, Deut. viii, 3, 16, and in the imperfect where it occurs one hundred and five times ${ }^{1}$; harder sounds e. g. . sünciq which occurs twelve times in the Pentateuch and only once elsewhere instead of the later softer form


1 * Compare Ewald, "Lehrbuch der hebräischen Sprache" (Güttingen 1870 ), $\S .502 \mathrm{~b}$. Although this form of the imperfect is not confined to the Pentatcuch, yet it is especially frequent there. See Keil, "Lehrbuch der historisch-kritischen Einleitung in die kanonischen und apokryphischen Schriften des Alten Testaments" Frankfurt a. MI. 1873, p. 44.
$n$ for $\hat{o} t h$, in the imperfect ${ }_{\boldsymbol{\eta}}$ for $n \bar{u}^{1}$, provided this is not to be explained as a remnant of an old kind of Aramaic formation; unusual formations of stems, e. g.
 sequently are only used in poetry e. g. the case-endings $\hat{o}^{\prime \prime}$, as
 suffix of the third mase. sing. lı $\hat{u}$ Gen. i, 12, which is another form for $\hat{o}$ etc.
§. 7. The golden age of Hebrew literature was during the period of David and Solomon after the middle of the eleventh, and of Isaiah during the eighth century. The decline of the Hebrew language begins after the age of Jeremiah and is characterized as follows. 1) The orthographical system is changed. The scriptio plena is more frequently employed with merely heightened vowels, and a phonetic rather than an etymologic manner of writing is used. 2) Later unorganic forms
 Ez. xiii, 20 ; xxiii, 48 ff.; of the 3. fem. plur. -
 vii, 37. 3) There is a strong infusion of Aramaisms, which were hitherto confined almost exclusively to the poctical style, e. g. compare a) Chaldee forms of the infinitive as çal̂̈ for fixes of the second fem. sing. of which the final sound


1 : Compare Gesenius, "IIebraische Grammatik" (heransgegeben von (. liödiger, Leipzig 15i2), §. 104, 3, where it is remarked,
 ially after vav consecutivum c. g. Ex. i, 18, 19; vx, 20.

T-- $c \chi ; c$ ) suffixes of the third masc. sing. to the plural
 the Hithpael 2 Chron. xx, 35 ; e) phurals in $\hat{i n}$ instead of $i m ; f$ ) many abstract substantive formations etc.
§. 8. The extinction of the Hebrew and the substitution of the Chaldee in its place is due to the Babylonian captivity. This is confirmed by the use of the Chaldee in Daniel ${ }^{1}$, and the original author who according to Esra v, 4 lived at the end of the sixth century, by the Aramaic composition of the Persian edicts to the Jews, and by Nehem. viii, 8; compare Megilla ${ }^{2} 3^{\text {a }}$ and Nedarim ${ }^{3} 37^{\text {b }}$. The fact that the writers after the captivity use better Hebrew than those who wrote shortly before it, or during the exile proves that they were writing in a dead language and sought to adapt themselves to classical models. - The new Hebrew of the Mishna, the Midrashim, and the rabbinical literature is merely a later artificial development.
§. 9. The grammatical treatment of the Hebrew dates from the tenth century. It began with the rabbinical and Karaitic Jews in the Orient and in Spain, with Saadya ( $\dagger$ 942), Abul-Walid ( $\dagger$ about 1030), Aben Ezra ( $\dagger$ 1167); more particularly however in the rest of Europe after the begimning of the twelfth century, with Joseph, Moses and David Kimchi, who flourished about the beginning of the thirteenth century, and Elias Levita ( $\dagger 1549$ ). The study of Hebrew was introduced among the Christians after the thirteenth century, Raimundus

1 *Chapters ii, 4-vii of Daniel and iv, 8-vi, 18 of Ezra are written in Chaldee.

2 *The treatise in the Talmud which bears this name treats of the Purim festival and the reading of the book of Esther.
${ }^{3}$ * Nedarim considers the different kind of vows and their obligatory force.

Martini ( $\dagger$ after 1286), Nicolaus Lyranus ( $\dagger$ 1340), Perez di Valencia ( $\dagger$ 1491). The first grammars were by Anton de Lebrija ( $\dagger$ 1544) and by John Reuchlin ( $\dagger 1522$ ). The science of the Hebrew language in the sixteenth century was entirely dependent upon rabbinical instruction. In the seventeenth century although it was pursued with erudition it was unfruitful. Every interest was made subservient to the punctation, the primitive existence and absolute correctness of which was demanded in the interest of the sufficiency and perspicuity of the Bible (John Buxtorf, senior). It was customary to explain the linguistic phenomena through as unhistorical a system as that of the tres morae ${ }^{1}$ (Alting $\dagger 1697$, Danz $\dagger 1727$ ). About the beginning of the eighteenth century Alb. Schultens ( $\uparrow 1750$ ) through the comparative study of the Arabic paved the way for a better method. Towards the end of the same century such grammarians as Vater ( $\dagger$ 1826) and Jahn ( $\dagger$ 1816) sought to emancipate themselves from the rabbinical tradition and to pursue the grammar with more simplicity and taste. Against this tendency to arbitrariness and a contempt for detailed examinations, Gesenius ( $\dagger$ 1842) established the empirical facts of the language, and involuntarily became an apologist for the Jewish tradition. Ewald ( $\dagger 1875$ ) indicated the higher onds of a scientific treatment of the language, but Justus Olslaas in first succeeded by the consistent use of the historico-critical and comparative mothod in tracing back the linguistic phenomena to their origin. Büttcher's ( $\dagger$ 1863) great work ${ }^{2}$ is raluable as a collection of materials but in other respects it is a step backwards.

[^2]
## 2. HISTORY OF WRITING.

S. 10. The Semitic characters were not invented ${ }^{1}$ by the Phoenicians, but arose from the Hieratic forms of the Egrptian hieroglyphics, from which all the written phonetic systems have arisen through the medium of the Semitic letters with the exception of the Japanese syllabic signs, and the cuneiform characters ${ }^{2}$ (Lenormant ${ }^{3}$, Lauth ${ }^{4}$ ). Others admit only an indirect derivation. They hold that the Shemites transferred the acrophonic ${ }^{5}$ principle of the hieroglyphics to their own language, but a comparison of the letters
${ }^{1}$ The art of writing was never invented at all, but has constantly arisen from the drawings of objects, which have gradually become the designation of the sound with which the language indicated the object, and finally that of the initial element of this sound. The picture of a mouth at first represented hieroglyphically the notion mouth, then the sound ro, which in Egyptian is equivalent to mouth, and finally the letter $r$. The Mexican and essentially also the Chinese system of writing are based entirely upon the ideographic principle. The cuneiform art of writing, which was transferred by a Turanian people to the Assyrians and the Persians, and the Egyptian hieroglyphics associate the ideographic with the phonetic principle, yet in such a way that the lattcr always predominates.

2 *See Mr. Joachim Menant, "Le Syllabaire Assyrien. Exposć des éléments du système phonétique de l'écriture anarienne" (Prcmière partie, Paris 1860. Seconde partie, 1873).
${ }^{3}$ See his "Introduction à un mémoire sur la propagation de l'alphabet phénicien" Paris 1566.
${ }^{4}$ See the "Sitzungsberichte der Bayerischen Akademic der Wissenschaften" (1867), S. 84-124.

5 *That is the designation of the letter through the picture of an object beginuing with the same sound as the letter was to represent, compare the origin of $b$ in the table.
in the table indicates that they have been direetly borrowed.
§. 11. Originally all the members of the Semitic family used the old so-called Phoenician system of writing ${ }^{1}$, which was employed before the sixth century in Nineveh and Babylon together with the cuneiform characters. Since that time the Aramaic letters have been formed in a peculiar manner, especially through the opening of the heads of $\beth, 7, \ddot{\prime}, 7$, e. g. upon the talent of Abydos ${ }^{2}$, which represents the figure of a lion. This appears more plainly upon the coins and seals of the Persian satraps of anterior Asia, and still more evidently in the Aramaic inscriptions and papyrus from Egypt. At a later period the shaft, in several letters, is bent towards the left in order to render a connection possible with what follows. Thus during the last centuries before Christ several peculiar kinds of writing were gradually developed, of which the Pulmyrenian as the nearest source of the Hebrew square characters possesses the greatest interest for us.
§. 12. Among the Jews there are two different kinds of writing. The older which is still found upon cut ${ }^{3}$ stones and the coins of the Machabees (even upon those of Bar-Cochba ${ }^{4}$ A. D. 132) is an antique Phoe-
${ }^{1} *$ By far the oldest example of this kind of writing would be the inseription of the Moabite king, Mesa, which dates from the beginning of the ninth century before Christ. Doubts have however been recently raised in regard to its genuineness.
$2^{*}$ See de Vogué, "Mélanges d'arehéologic Orientale", Paris 1868, p. 179.
${ }_{3}$ The Israclitic seals, found at Nineveh, must be older than the eaptivity, comp. Levy, "Siegel und Gemmen", Breslau 1869.

1 *Seo Madden's "History of Jewish coinage", London 1862, p. 203 ff .
nician and essentially identical with the Samaritan． The present so－called square characters occur after 176 B．C．upon several inscriptions of the second and first centuries，which have been discovered by De Vogué．${ }^{1}$ They have eridently arisen from the Palmyrenian，and are the result not of a gradual change in the char－ acters（K＇opp ${ }^{2}$ ，Hupfeld ${ }^{3}$ ），but of an interchange of the old（Phoenician）with the new Aramaic（especially Palmyrenian），which at the latest has taken place since the second century before Christ．For some time both systems were in use side by side until at last the older was entirely forgotten．There is now no need of refuting the opinion that the quadrata has been the sacred char－ acter of the Hebrews from the beginning．At the same time its derivation from the Babylonian（Talmud ${ }^{4}$ Origen ${ }^{5}$ ，Jerome ${ }^{6}$ ，Bleek ${ }^{7}$ ）is rendered impossible by reason of its near relationship to the Palmyrenian char－ acters．The ligatures which were customary in the older quadrate writing have been relinquished，on the other hand the upper blocks upon the letters $1 / 0.0$ שע （ミッコンゴ）have been introduced．
§．13．We transcribe the Hebrew consonants as
${ }^{1}$ See the＂Revue archéologique＂（1864）， $\mathrm{IX}, 200$.
${ }^{2}$＊See Kopp＇s（ $\uparrow$ 1834）＂Bilder und Schriften der Vorzeit＂， II， 51 ff ．and 87 ff ．

3 ＊Herman IIupfeld（ $\dagger$ 1866）in the＂Studien und Kritiken＂ （1830），S． 256 ff．and in his＂Ausführliche hebräische Grammatik＂ Marburg 1841，I， 39.
$4 *$ Bab．Sanhedrin $21^{\text {b }}$ ．Jer．Megilla I．IIalacha 9.
5 ＊Origenis Hexapla，I， 86 ed．Montf．
6 ＊In the beginning of his Prologus Cialeatus．
7 ＊See his Einlcitung．


 critical point discriminates $\dot{\forall}$ from $\dot{\cup}$ s．While the aspirated pronunciation of the $\cap$ Is indicated only exceptionally by Raphe（ $\overline{\mathbf{Z}}$ ）the unaspirated pronun－ ciation is shown by an internal point in the letters （Dāgeš lene）．A final - is only a sign for a final rowel， and is therefore to be omitted in the transcription unless its character as a consonant is fixed by an internal point（Mappik）．The reduplication is also in－ dicated by an internal point（Dāges forte）．The letters コ Tロ聞（partially in the old square Palmyrenian and Hauranian writing）．The letters $\begin{array}{r}\text { ת } \\ \text { 万 } \\ \text {－can }\end{array}$ be widened at the end of a line so as to avoid the division of words．－The letters also serve as numerals，
 400 ，ケーケタY $=500-900$ ，※ again $=1000$ ete．，the combinations $\boldsymbol{\pi r}$ ，יר are avoided out of reverence for the name and $\begin{gathered}\text { יהוה } \\ \text { ，} \\ \text { ，} \\ \text { ט are used instead．}\end{gathered}$
§．14．The Semitie writing still retains its original syllabic character in this respect that it is rowelless． This principle which was strictly maintained in the Phoenician was at an early period so far modified in a）Hebrew that，become the substitute for $\hat{u}$（and $\hat{o}$ which was originally $a v$ or $\hat{i}$ ），and ，fack $\hat{\imath}$（and $\hat{e}$ ，$\hat{i}$ which have arisen from＂y）．This is called scriptio plenu． The vowel $\hat{a}$ was only indicated at the end of a word by $-T$ ，which could also indicate the other long and
 by the Greek letters $\beta, \gamma, \delta, \chi, \nu, \vartheta$ ．

2＊$\Lambda$ t the end of a syllablo Yós should bo pronounced like

heightened ${ }^{1}$ rowels (e. g. $\because-,-\pi, \pi$ ) except $\hat{\imath}$ and $\hat{u}$. Thus the short vowels were entirely umindicater, the long rowels were in many eases undetermined, and even the value of the vowels themselves was doubtful, since the vowel letters were at the same time consonants. Therefore after the dying ont of the language an urgent necessity impelled to a system of punctuation which was gradually developed.
§. 15. The development of the punctuation has probably passed through the following stages. 1) Originally a diacritic sign designated the more unusual, less simple form (Samaritan diacritic line). 2) Another sign came into use which expressed the opposite of the former. Thus in Syriac the point beneath the letter indicated the simple monosyllabic form of the verb, e. g. per ${ }^{\text {colal }}$, and that of monosyllabic nouns like din, sěpar; on the other hand that above the letter, the less simple, unexpected, generally dissyllabic form either with or without the reduplication of the second radical, e. g. pêe $\bar{e} l$, pace $\bar{c} l$, and nouns with the reduplication of the second radical, as duyyân. In this way the older sign by an easy transition came to indicate a vowel (especially $a$ ), the reduplication, or the non-aspiration, while the later sign indicated successively a Serva and then the rowel $i$ as the opposite of $a$ or the aspirated pronuuciation; but $u$ was most frequently indicated by the vowel consonant. The simpler basis, which preceded the Palestinean and Babylonian system of punctuation must have been of the same sort, comp. §. 16. Both possess only two sigus in common Dïreš and Rạ̄è (or Ilŭṭēp, which also serves as $\left.\dot{S}_{!}^{\prime} r u \bar{u}\right)$. The former corresponds to the Syriae point above the letter (Kushioi) and Arabic a, the latter to the one beneath

[^3]it (Rukkêch) and the Arabic i. 3) The two (or with $u$ three) fundamental vowels were divided through repeated distinctions into their different shades of sound. This is still evident in Syriac, where at a later period the two simple points were increased through the introduction of double points to eight; it is not so evident however in Hebrew by reason of our unfamiliarity with the history of the punctuation.
§. 16. Since neither Jerome nor the Talmud evince any knowledge of the punctuation, the assumption of its originality is an error, which requires no refutation. Still the development of the rowel signs must have begun soon after the close of the Talmud. ${ }^{1}$ Our present and only current punctuation conforms to the Tiberian or Palestinean system. Besides this there was a Babylonian, or Assyrian system, which was discorered in 1839 , in the Crimea, in a manuscript which dates from the year 916. ${ }^{2}$ It has only six vowels, Dā (Hütḗ). In an unaccented closed syllable the Rāpe is placed underneath, in an unaccented acute syllable ${ }^{3}$ over the vowel, on account of which the Mé $\ddagger$ c $\gamma$ becomes superfluous (§. 18). Instead of Pajah with Hätè written underneath Çere is employed according to the Arabic pronunciation. All the signs stand orer the consonants. ${ }^{*}$

1*According to Emanuel Deutsch the so-called Jerusalem Gemara was redacted at Tiberias about 390 A. D. and the Babylonian at Sora $365-427$ A. D. The codex of the latter however was not closed until the end of the fifth century A. D. See his Literary Remains, London 1874 , p. 40.
${ }^{2} *$ Dr. Hermann Strack of Berlin edited a facsimile of this entire manuscript, Petropoli 1875.
${ }^{3}$ An acute syllable is one which ends in a doubled consonant.
4*S. Pinsker, "Einlcitung in das babylonisch-hebraiische P'unktationssystem", Wien 1863. Sce also the back of the last leaf of Strack's "Hosea et Joel".
§. 17. Our vowel system may be transeribed as follows: $\bar{\tau} \hat{a}, \bar{u} ; ~=a ;\urcorner \hat{e} ; \bar{e} ; ~\urcorner \overline{\ddot{a}} ; \bar{₹} e, \overline{\ddot{u}}$;
 which are undesignated are short. Those above which a short dash is written are heightened and those written with a circumflex are originally long. Sẹc$v \bar{a}-$ is used either to indicate a vowelless letter( S.evu quiescens) or a half vowel $\check{g}$ (S.èva molile); the latter appears in
 Ilütēp qümes $\begin{array}{r}\text { ri } \\ \text { o. . All the rowels are placed under- }\end{array}$ neath except Šureq, which stands in its consonant, and Mīlem which stands above and behind the consonant to which it belongs. The concurrence of Hōlem with the point of $w$ is indicated by only one point. A Paきalk which stands under a final consonant (Pasah furtivum) is pronounced before it. We indicate it, as in general all assistant vowels, which first entered the Hebrew in order to facilitate the promuciation, by brackets.
§. 18. The accentuation ${ }^{1}$ stands in the closest connection with the vocalization. Even the Talmud demands a discriminating ${ }^{2}$ reading, and a melodious delivery. ${ }^{3}$ The accentuation serves this double purpose, and appears in the post-talmudic age at the same time with the rocalization. The accents are 1) musical notes, which indicate how each word is to be sung. They dispose the verse as a rhythmical whole, according to aesthetic laws, especially of equilibrium. They are 2) signs of interpunctuation, which separate or unite the

1 *The §. 18-20 have been furnished by Prof. Franz Delitzsch, at the request of Prof. Bickell.
${ }^{2}$ Megilla 3 a.
${ }^{3}$ Megilla $32^{3}$.
words according to their sense. They arrange the rerse as a thought in the form of a clause according to logical and grammatical laws. Their predominant function is musical. Yet no reliable tradition has been retained regarding their musical value. The cantillation of the Thora and the Haftaroth, i. e. the prophetical pericopes varies, in the German and Spanish rites. Concerning the punctuation of Job, Proverbs and Psalms we have no complete account. The old grammarians furnish only fragmentary notices respecting the way in which some of the accents should be sung. Besides the interest of the grammarian is fixed upon the accents as marking the tone-syllable of single words, and the relation of the words to each other in the articulation of the sentence. In the former respect the accentuation is of great importance for the elementary and formal part of the grammar, in the latter for its syntactical part, since the accents indicate e. $g$. the genitive relation of the words and the elliptical relative sentences. It is however of far greater importance for the exegesis e. g. Lev. ix, 19 , where the halving of the verse determines what portion of the bullock is to be brought and what portion of the ram; and Judges v, 1S, where the name Naphtali, with questionable propricty, is connected with the first member of the verse. But the most important function of the accents for the grammar is as indicators of the tone-syllable of words. They shew us that the primary accent of the word commonly rests upon the final syllable, but not monotonously, for omitting the fact that in words of more than one syllable a scomdary accent or deep tone, which is indicated by $M \bar{e} s e \gamma$, is wont to precede the primary accent or high tone, there are many cases in which the primary accent rests upon the penultima, since the following are maccented: 1) final
syllables whose vowel is only an auxiliary e. g. תֵen séo(e)r, liber, ${ }^{2}$ ? ? yiv(e)l emigrabit; 2) the old accusative ending $\bar{a}$ of the noun e. g. .iלְְְיְל láyla noctu, and the cohortative $\bar{a}$ in future and imperative, but only, when a long vowel precedes, e. g. ${ }^{2}$ $\left.l_{i}^{\prime \prime} \chi \bar{a} ; 3\right)$ all the personal suffixes, except -kiem, -kén, -hém, -hén, - $\hat{\imath}^{\prime}$, -ô' (because it is contracted out of $\bar{a}-$ $h \hat{u})$ and $-k \dot{a}$; this last suffix however remains unaccented after a long vowel, in pausa and in the energetic future; 4) the final syllables of several verbal forms, viz. the 1 . sing., 1. plur. and 2 . sing. masc. of the perfect, the 2 . and 3 . fem. plur. of the imperat. and future; 5) the final syllables of certain other forms (viz. 3. fem. sing. and 3. plur. in the perfect, 2 . fem. sing. and 2 . masc. plur. in the imperative, 2 fem. sing. and 2 . and 3. masc. plur. in the future) of the verbs mediae geminatae and of the verbs mediae $v, y$, as well as in the hicôl in the regular verb; 6) the final syllable of the historical mode, modus consecutivus, in which the tone frequently falls back upon the penultima. Moreover the accentuation shows that this retrogression occurs not unfrequently in other cases according to strictly rhythmical laws, e. g. when a word with the primary accent upon its first syllable inmediately follows a word with the accent upon the last as ${ }^{\circ}$ Ex. xix, 5 , but not when the first word ends in a closed syllable with $\hat{o}, \hat{u}$ or $\hat{\imath}$. This legal retrogression of the tone contributes very much to heighten the euphony of the language through the diversification of the rhythm. Our grammarians hold that in Hebrew the antepenult never receives the primary accent. There are however circumstances which occasion the retrogression of the primary accent as far as the ante-


Bickeld's Outlines.
§. 19. The accents, as signs of interpunctuation are divided into Separatives (distinctivi) or mulers, and Unitives (conjunctivi) or servants. That the accentuation preeminently serves a musical purpose appears from the following reasons, 1) that the logical discrimination needed proportionally far fewer separatives; 2) that many unitives have been found which do not indicate various degrees of connection, but only represent different kinds of modulation; 3) that there is a so-called prosaic accentuation, which is distinguished from the metrical not logically, but only musically, since it is based upon a more manifold, richer, more artistic and pathetic cantillation ; 4) that even short verses are accentuated after the analogy of the longer, which can only have arisen from an effort to secure a symmetrical recitation. There are however verses which form such a continuity that the halving of the verse through a great separative, or even at all, cannot be effected, e. g. Gen. xxi, 9. Numb. ix, 1. Deut. iv, 48; v, 23. 1 Chron. xxviii, 1. But as a rule the verse whether long or short is dirided into two members. Both accentual systems rest upon the same dichotomic principle. The great accents are heaped upon the end of the verse, since its close according to the rhythmical rule should be spoken slowly and sung with suitable cadence. Words which belong closely together are commonly united with Maqqēp and then receive only one accent. The metrical accentuation howerer frequently prefers to give the first word a unitive, as e.g. 'ün̂ in the three poetical books is never connected with Maqqēp. That the Maqqép serves to prevent the succession of several unitives is not true; several unitives can immediately follow one another, but never more than six Jer. xxxy, 15. 2. Kings xviii, 14. They are all of the same logical value. The comnective power,
however, of the unitive which precedes is stronger than that of the one which follows, as also the disjunctive power of the separative which precedes is stronger than that of the one which follows. The ascendency of the musical function is further indicated by the fact that one word can be provided with two unitives. There are on the other hand only five examples, in which one word is pointed with two separative accents, Gen. r, 29. Lev. x, 4. 2. Kings xvii, 13. Ez. xlviii, 10. Zeph. ii, 15.
§. 20. Prose accents. A) Separatives: 1) が Sillûq, which with Sộ pā̀siq (:) always indicates the
 which is always above the last letter and hence does not indicate the tone-syllable; 4) к̌ $Z \bar{a} q \bar{e} \varnothing \rho q \bar{u} t \bar{a} n$ with

 with words which are not preceded by any unitive and whose tone is on the first letter, the latter where both conditions fail; 9) s $P \bar{a} \bar{z} \bar{e} r(q \bar{a} t \bar{a} n)$ and its equivalent «̈ Pāzēr gādôl or Qarnê pārā, which occurs only sixteen times, Num. xxxp, 5. Jos. xix, 51. 2. Sam.
 double Gā̄reš; 11) is Lègurmēh, the figure of a Mînalu
 always above the first letter of the word and inclining to the right; 13) ※ $\operatorname{Zarqâ}$ always above and a little to the left of the last letter; 14) is Šalsüles, which only occurs seven times, Gen. xix, 16; xxiv, 12 etc. B) Unitives: 1) $\underset{\text { s Minal, sometimes e. g. Gen. }}{\text { B }}$ xviii, 2 ă; xliii, 21 with following Pas $\bar{e} q$ as a unitive, which may be recognized by this, that $L_{\grave{E} \gamma}{ }^{\gamma}$ armēh scarcely ever appears except on the second word before Rę̧juic
 occurs only fourteen times; 4) ֻ Męhuppāұ (Mahpax), always with the tone-syllable after the vowel, while Yèji $\hat{\beta}^{2}$ stands outside of the word before the vowel of the first letter; 5) « Dargā ; 6) 太 Qadmâ, always over the first letter of the tone-syllable, while Past $t \hat{a}$ stands
 at the end of a word and inclining towards the left,
 of a word and inclines to the right; 8) © Galyal only
 which has the same form as the separative Tri申!î, but which is easily distinguishable, since it never occurs alone, but under the same word with Sillûq, Lev. xxi, 4 or ' $A$ §nah, Numb. xxviii, 26, takes the place of the counter-tone. It is customary with the prepositives and postpositives to indicate the tone-syllable by the rep-
 Gen. xvii, 20. The three greatest separatives are Sillûq, which closes the verse, ' $A$ §nal which halves it, and Sĕroltâ (or its vicar $\dot{S}$ als $\bar{a} l e \grave{\imath}$ ), which, when the first hemistich is large, halves it again, e. g. Gen. i, 7. Each of these great separatives can only be used once in a verse. Of course every verse must have a Sillíq. But verses occur, as Gen. xxi, 9 , which cannot have ' $A$ innal, and consequently cannot have any S:̆voltâ. There are circumstances which render ' $A$ Inah possible under the first word of a verse e. g. Gen. xv, 8; xxxy, 5, but not Sĕroltâ, in this case Salsüle $\grave{\ddagger}$ takes its place e. g. Gen. xxiv, 12. Next in rank to the greatest sepa-






Pūzèr；Pāzēr more than Tèllistu，which is the least of all the separatives．With the exception of the three greatest separatives all the others can be repeated in the verse，yet Tiophâ，Rěßíci，Tü̈res and Tĕllis＇$\hat{a}$ cannot be repeated immediately after each other．A single verse of the Bible，Is．xxxix，2，contains all the sep－ aratives．We pass over the assignment of the unitives to the separatives，since all the separatives，assuch， have the same worth．Y乌̆亏îß，Zāqēo $\gamma \bar{a} \delta o ̂ l$ ，and Šalšäle a appear always without any preceding ser－ vants．The other separatives can be accompanied by servants or not；only Pāzer $\gamma \bar{a} \delta \hat{\partial} l$ is never found without a servant．
§．20a．In the metrical system of accentuation the following occupy the first rank as the greatest separatives
 which again halves the second hemistich following＇ôl $\dot{\overline{\ddot{a}}} \mathrm{re} \mathrm{e}-$ yôrēठ．The second class is represented by $\dot{\aleph}$ Rępiai gāठôl．The third class comprises $\widehat{\aleph}$ Çinnôr or Zarqā
 may be recognized by the fact that＇Ôl $\overline{\vec{a}}$ vĕ̀yôre $\bar{e} \delta$ always immediately follows；and 1 ぶ Šalsü̈le gĕ̀o ôlē，with a separating stroke behind it．The least separatives of the fourth class are n Dĕlı̂（Tiopha initicle），which is always before the vowel at the beginning of a word；
 ＇Azlâ（Qaঠmâ）Lẹ̀үarmēh．Dĕhlî̀ and Pāzēr separate more than Lë̀ $\gamma a r m e \bar{e} h ; ~ P a \bar{a} \bar{e} r$ separates more than Lȩ̀armētu and less than $D_{\substack{c} \hat{\imath} \text { ．But in the beginning of a period }}^{\text {a }}$
 Pūzèr，Ps．cxlvi， 1 and Lèץarmèl，Ps．cvi， 1 some－ times have the value of this greatest separative．The unitives in this accentual system of the three so－called metrical books are 刃，Mêrè̛＜ū，※ Mînah，ぶ ‘Illûy（upper

Mînah），※ู Galgal or Yürrah，ֻ．Tarhā，which can be distinguished from $D_{\grave{d} h}^{\mathrm{el}} \mathrm{h}$ by its position under the tone－

 Ps．iii，8，is Cinnoris，which is always written over an open syllable，preceding one which is provided with Mêrẹ̆ $\bar{u} \bar{u}$ or Mẹ̆hupp $\bar{a} \chi$ ；its value is simply musical：the ultima in the above pran the tone－syllable，as is
 Num．x，35．Ps．lxxiv，22．The descent of the tone is intended to secure the clear pronunciation of the colliding syllables．In both accentual systems，the laws of transformation ${ }^{1}$ furnish an important chapter for

1 The laws，for the transformation of separatives into unitives in the metrical system of accents are given by S．Baer in Delitzsch＇s＂Commentar über den Psalter＂，B．ii， $1860, \mathrm{~S} .503 \mathrm{sq}$ ．In the accentual system of the twenty one prose books the following rules are to be observed．A）Pašta without any preceding servant only stands before Zāqēp，when the word which should receive Zäqēp has two syllables before the
 Ḥōlem，Qāmȩ̄ or Çêrê，is equivalent to two syllables．If the word which receives Zāqēp does not have two syllables be－ fore the tone，the servant Mûnaḷ must be placed before it
 qēp and Tipha can only stand before Sillûq，when the word with Sillûq or even that with TTipha has two syllables before
 the servant Mûnaḥ before Zäqēop）．If the word with Sillùq does not have two syllables before the tone，the servant Mērěxa must be placed instead of TTipha；hence Zäqēp cannot remain before the Mèrĕła，since Zäqẹ̄̀ must not stand immediately before Sillûq，and so Tipḷa takes the place of Zāqēp，e．g．
 is in force before Aラnahta，e．g．ニニスホ Gen．ix， 12 ，where likewise Tiopla before $A$ Inalhta becomes a servant． Tho word－ịn has TTipḷa，not Zäqēp，since Zäqēp camot
the grammarian and exegete. There are circumstances under which a unitive takes the place of a separative for an absolutely rhythmical reason, just as, for rhythmical reasons, in the realm of Sillûq great separatives take the place of unitives in order to secure an emphatic final cadence. The rhythmical demands of the cadence also furnish reasons for changes to which the tone-syllable of the word is subject at the end or middle of the verse or even with greater distinctives within the verse.
§. 21. The pausa enters at the end of a sentence, especially with Sillu$q$ and ' $A$ Ənal and in the three metrical books with Silluq, 'ôlä̈ rĕyôred or 'Aइnal. i. e. the last word undergoes certain changes in order that each sentence when recited may have a fitting cadence. A half vowel in the penultima is heightened to its original vowel and receives the tone. Accordingly phen

 lâkh, forms qatalat, kabidat, yaqtuluina, lachy, 'any, huly). Otherwise the tone is seldom drawn back, except in יבִּ the apocopated future the tone returns to the final syllable, because this contains the stem of the word; hence $a$ enters instead of $e$. Thus on? ray-yáqom becomes

stand immediately before Asnahta or Sillîq, and the word
 allowable. In all these cases the aecentuation is determined by musical laws, and the exegete must beware of confounding the musical with the logieal accentuation.
 va yangamil, va yalik, talin). In monosyllabic nominal stems original $a$ is often heightened to $\bar{a}$ instead of $\overline{\bar{u}}$,





## II.

## PH0N0L0GY.

## 1. CONSONANTS.

§. 22. The Hebrew consonants are divided according to their organic formation into gutturals (', $h$, $\left.h,{ }^{\prime}\right)$, palatals $(y, g, k, q)$, labials $(v, b, p)$, dentals $(d, t, t)$ and sibilants $(z, s, s, s, \varsigma)$. The letter $n$ is a dental and $m$ a labial nasal, $l$ is a dental, $r$ racillates between gutturals and dentals. The Hebrew consonants may be distinguished 1) according to their duration into continuatives $(h, h, y, v, z, s, s, s, n, m, r, l)$, and explosives (the remaining letters), and 2) according to their degree of hardness, as softest (', $y, v$ ), soft ( $h, g, b, d, z$ ), hard ( $k, k, p, t, s, s, s)$, and hardest ( $, q, t, f) .{ }^{1}$ The letters $v, y$ form a special class as
${ }^{1}$ In Ethiopic there is a labial (Pait, see Dillmann, "Grammatik der äthiopischen Sprache", Leipzig 1857, S. 45, §. 5) of the hardest degree. The propriety of reckoning 'Ayin among the hardest explosives is justified by its manifold correspondence in Aramaic to the Hebrew $\varepsilon$, since in these cases the original $t$ first became $q$ (compare Chaldaic spes' ${ }^{\prime}\left(\operatorname{rqq}(\hat{\mathrm{u}})\right.$ and then ${ }^{\text {' }}$; and it is not invalidated by the fact that 'Ayin afterwards became almost mute, since $q$ has suffered the same fate in a part of the Arabic speaking countries, See Hassan, "Grammatik der vulgär-arabischon Sprache", Wien 1869, S. 5.
vowel consonants, which easily pass over into their corresponding vowcls. The following table illustrates the organic distinction of the letters and their relative degrees of hardness.

|  |  | ${ }_{\text {Soft }}^{2}$. |  | $\stackrel{4}{\text { Hardest. }}$ | Nasals. | Liquids. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Palatals |  | ; | $\nu$ | $p$ |  |  |
| Labials | - \% | 7 | $\square$ |  | \% |  |
| Dentals |  | 7 | $\pi$ | $\because$ | \% | b) |
| Gutturals | * | - | $\pi$ | - |  |  |
| Sibilants |  | \% | - \% \% | $\pm$ |  |  |

§. 23. Parts of the Hebrew sibilants have arisen from original dentals, namely a part of $z$ from $d$ c. g. ذַئّبُ děibun; of š from $t$, e. g.

 and the tramsposition of $t \varsigma$ to $s t$, compare $\S .25$, render it probable that $z$ and \& were spoken without any dental admixture. The difficult letter ss may be regarded as already in the primitive Scmitic a medial sound between $s$ and $\dot{s}$, which maintained itself in Hebrew, while in Aramaic it went back to $s$, and in Arabic was still further developed to $\check{s}(\dot{\mathcal{H}})$, compare on the other hand Olshansen $\S$. 6. e. Neither $\&$ nor $s$ is original, since the former has arisen from $s$, and the latter from sor $t$. Both 'and $!$ had a smoother and a harder sound. This is proved through the LNX,
the old Egyptian transcription ${ }^{1}$, and lexical reasons (i. e. the different significations of some identical roots, in
 риּ
$\S .24$. The letters $l, g, d, k, p, t$ when immediately preceded by a vowel or half vowel Švvā mobile or Ilaute $\bar{c} p$, even in a foregoing word, become aspirated. E. g. כָּ
 1) when the preceding word is punctuated with a larger or smaller separative accent, e. g. with Rẹ̆biá Gen. iii, 5 ם בִּ kit bẹ̆yôm; 2) when the consonant is doubled e. g. ํ. Kappér; 3) after an inserted auxiliary Paŋala which as will be mentioned in $\S$. 55 , rem. was first used at a very late period, e. g. yil. (a)d. The aspiration never occurs after a consonant, but after $\overline{\text { Alep a }}$ at the end of a syllable, which is no longer a consonant, and as a matter of course after final He when it is merely a vowel sign (§. 13). - The great age of this lingual phenomenon is attested through the Aramaic and the Egyptian transcription, but (excepting Phe) it has not yet penetrated the Arabic.
§. $2 \overline{0}$. The transposition of consonants enters the hi ppael even in the primitive Semitic, since hij-s, hiJ-s,

 If the sibilant is a $\varsigma$, the $t$ must be brought to the same degree of hardness, consequently to $t$ (See the fourth

${ }^{1}$ When ' in hieroglyphic texts corresponds to $\varepsilon$ it is transcribed by characters which are equivalent to $a, \bar{a}$, but when it corresponds to $\dot{\varepsilon}$ by characters for $g, k, c . g$. in Gaza. A similar distinction is observed in such inscriptions between Semitic words, whose - is equivalent to an Arabic

$$
\tau^{\text {or }} \dot{C}
$$

In the only example for $z$ assimilation takes place instead of transposition, e. g. ?ִיָּ hizzakkía for hizdakkā.
§. 26. Doubling of a consonant arises otherwise than through the fortuitous conjunction of two identical consonants, as in of the noun and verb (piel) which have resulted from original reduplication of the roots; 2) in consequence of the vocal law in primitive Semitic that, as a rule, the short vowel between two identical consonants is cast out, or, when this is impossible, transposed that the identical consonants may come together. Comp. בַ saß according to $\S .27$ for sabb, originally sababa,
 transposed for yasbubî. 3) Doubling arises through the assimilation of two consonants, especially of $n$ to a following consonant ( $\mathfrak{b} \dot{\bar{E}}$ ? yippól for yinpóll,
 gutturals the assimilation is often omitted, compare ליֶּ verbs, as pis? yiçóq $q$, from yi-ysóóq, original form yarçuq (unless perlaps there is here a transition to the verbal class primae nun), and of the $t$ in the hispael before dentals (רִּ 4) Sometimes the doubling is only euphonic, either in order to bind two words more closely together ( mazzäँ), or in order to protect a short vowel through the closing of the syllable against changes c. g. gĕmalli' $m$, Stat. cstr. 'he gémallê.
§. 27. The doubling always ceases at the end of a word, because no syllable can end with two consonants, comp. $\S .30$; besides this the accented final syllable must be heightened, according to $\S .42,1$; only
a can remain short. Compare kullot with kot

 r商 with with $n=\bar{\epsilon} \bar{\xi}$ for titt. The doubling can also disappear
 $m e$. before the piel, yet never in letters which can be aspiratal, e. g.

§. 28. The gutturals ' $h^{\prime} h$, as well as $r$ are not wont to be doubled in Hebrew, nerertheless the preceding rowel is either treated as though the doubling had taken place, and the syllable is closed through socalled Dā̄eč forte implicitum (this is almost always the case with $h$ and in the pieel with $h$ and ', seldom with' and never with $r$, compare
 syllable is regarded as open and its rowel is heightened according to §. 42. This occurs only seldom with h, commonly with ', $h$, almost always with ' and always with $r$, e. g. Tำ berex. ${ }^{1}$
§. 29. When $\frac{h}{\text {. }}$, which is to be doubled has $Q^{\overline{6}-}$
 heightened to $\bar{a}$ for the sake of dissimilarity. It is heightened before $h$ and ' only when the Qāmēg is unaccented. Compare



[^4]occurs before ' only in יִּ before $r$.
§. 30. No syllable, in Hebrew, can begin with
 a half vowel is inserted between them (e. g. לep $q$ (ĕ) $t \bar{o} \bar{l}$, original form $q t u l=q u t l$, Arabic 'uqtul). The Arabic expedient of prefixing an 'Alep prostheticum to the word is less in favor. Compare zinte 'ezrô(a)' with rô $(a)^{c}$, original form $\approx i r \hat{a}$. - Nor are two consonants allowed at the end of a syllable, except several combinations with $b, d, t, t, k$ or $q$ at the end of a word, as it is always customary in such a case to insert an auxiliary vowel, comp. §. 52.
§. 31. The rowel consonants $v, y$ are subject through permutation, vocalization and elision to many vocal laws which, with the exception of the first four cases in this paragraph, existed even in primitive Semitic. The letter $x$ frequently passes over into $y$ through permutation, 1) especially at the beginning of
 orig. râşib, only a fow words, as $\prod_{\tau}$ râv and lád retain $v$; 2) mostly also after the prefix of the hispacel, e. g. דִּ דan lisyallés, yet forms like hiむvaddia occur; 3) often in reduplicated second radical consonants, e. g. Ranycm; 4) almost always, where $v$ appears as a third radical consonant, as in $g \bar{u}-$ liny; 5) between $i$ and a consonant, comp. ציר $\overline{i r}=$
 a consonant and $i$, comp. . vim. - The transformation of $y$ into $r$, especially between $u$ and a consonant, is more seldom, comp. טְּ suis = suts = suys.
§. 32. Elision of the vowel consonants occurs in the following cases. 1) The transposed form quil from qitl lost its first radical consonant through aphaeresis, when it was a $v$. This is the fundamental form of the infinitive, imperative and future qal of a number

 the feminine infinitive of the form qtal from qatl, as
 elide their $v, y$ and receive, instead of these, compensative lengthening of the $a$ to $\hat{a}$ Hebrew $\hat{o}$ according

 yibvaš, nabyan. 3) Likewise $v, y$ between two vowels are almost always elided ${ }^{2}$, of course without compensation, and then both rowels are contracted. By

 davar, yinqavam, yinkavan), avi becomes ê (ֵֵ mề
 ceding short vowel is absorbed by a following long one, thus quim has arisen from qavûm. - This elision of $y, v$ between two vowels occurred even when the second was one of those final vowels, which according to §. 37, fall away in Hebrew. ${ }^{3}$ In this case however
${ }^{1}$ The aphaeresis of the $v$ is of course older than the introduction of the future prefixes.
${ }^{2}$ The elision does not take place, when two vowel consonants follow each other as radical letters, e. g. חרָ rāu ${ }^{\frac{1}{a}}=$

${ }^{3}$ The elision of $v, y$ between the two vowels was customary even in the old Semitic, while the casting off of the original final rowel which immediatcly follows rests upon the later specific Hebrew law of final sound. Comp. Arab. ramâ $=$ ra-
no rowel contraction could enter because in Hebrew after the elision of $y, v$ the final vowel which immediately follows is also rejected. Hence there arose only a heightening of the preceding rowel according to §. 42, 2. It is perhaps merely accidental that original $a[v a], a[y a]$ is always heightened to $\bar{a}$ and original $a[v u], a[y u]$ to $\overline{\bar{a}}$, e. g. تivin $g \bar{a} l \bar{c} u$ (but not


 precedes $v, y$, it remains or becomes $\hat{o}$ according to
 the rowel which followed was long or was not the last sound in the word, it was naturally not affected by the laws of final sound, but remained and after the ejection of $v$ or $y$ the short rowel was either contracted or absorbed by the long one. Comp. infin. constr. nitap
 (commonly with a double feminine ending -nָּ $\left.\Phi^{i}{ }^{\prime}\right)={ }^{\text {'assa-t }}$, according to $s .38$ for 'aṣ̂̀t, from 'assav-at,
 $={ }^{\text {'âsavi. }}$
§. 33. On the contrary elision does not take place, but the rocalizing of $y, v$ to $i, u: 1$ ) between $a$ and a consonant; 2) between a homogencous vowel and a consonant; 3) between a consonant and a homogencous rowel ( $i$ is homogeneous with $y, u$ with $r$ ). Then $i y$ and yi become $\hat{\imath}$, uv and vu become $\hat{u}$, ay becomes $\hat{e}$,


ma[y]a, with hebr. rāmà = rama[ya]; Arab. yat $1 \hat{u}=y a^{i} l u[i \cdot] n$,
 $y a^{c}(a) l=y a^{d}[[a]$.

 from mart, دשַׁit nôšả from naršab. The number of the homogeneous rowels is increased by the fact that according to $\S .31$ vi becomes $y i$, iv becomes iy, yue however becomes $y i$, and then all three are changed to $\hat{\imath}$. Comp.
 the contrary $\hat{u} y$, 立 $g \bar{a} l \hat{u} \hat{u}^{\prime} y$, remains unchanged. - The rocalization of the rowel consonants naturally takes place provided they already formed the final sound of the word in primitive Semitic, e. g. כוֵּי sûsê = sûsay. Therefore the imperative of the stems tert. $r, y$ has a diphthongal ending, comp. Wìn gẹlê from gèllay. For the nouns whose stat. absol. ends in $\overline{\bar{a}}$, and the stat. cstr. in $\hat{e}$ comp. §. 95 . - The ay which has arisen from
 $\hat{o}$ which has arisen from $a v$ becomes in rare cases $\hat{u}$,
 cept the diphthongal change, contested by Olshausen

 glayna, taglayna, sûsayhâ, since otherwise vowel consonants in the original final sound of the syllable are never elided. - In the Hebrew composition $i-y$ e. is contracted to $\hat{\imath}$, compare בִיהּידָּה ,

§.34. The vowel consonants $y, v$ retain their consonantal character, 1) when as first radical con-

1 *The author considers the form 3 as the future qal. It is commonly regarded as a hop'al which, in a metaplastic way, lends to the verb, to be capable, its imperfect, he shall be made capable.
sonants they begin the syllable ${ }^{1}$ e. g. ב. 2) when an unhomogeneous vowel except a precedes, e. g. . binations are not diphthongs and hence the hard sound of $b g d k p t$ follows them; 3) when they are doubled


 except in the stat. cstr., hay, stat. cstr. hâ lê , lav gav
 4) Besides $a y$, $a v$ are also retained in isolated cases,
 ularly however in the stat. absol. of monosyllabic nominal forms, where av, ay through insertion of an auxiliary vowel become $\bar{a} v(e)$, $\dot{a} y(i)$, while in the stat. cstr. contraction always takes place e. g. תְֶֶ cstr. All the rules concerning the vowel consonants may be condensed into the following sentence: $\boldsymbol{v}$, $\boldsymbol{y}$ between vowels, as well as between a consonant and an 11 , are elided, in the latter case with the compensative lengthening of a to 0 ; otherwise, when it is possible, they are vocalized, whereby $\boldsymbol{v}$ through a preceding or following $\boldsymbol{i}$ is changed into $y$.
§. 35. Besides $v$ (comp. §. 32, 1) the following letters, can suffer aphaeresis in the form qtal, qtil =

 lĕqah, n

[^5]א 'ŭnahn $\mathfrak{u}$ leaving is usually thrown out between a half vowel and a vowel,

 The second vowel vanishes in $\bar{T}$ bā̄hém. Contraction enters in the suffix ivo sûsố from sûs育-lutu.
§. 36. The 'Aleo almost always retains its consonantal power in the initial sound of the syllable, except in the future of some verbs primae ' $\overline{A l e p}$, in which contraction takes place between the rowel of the prefix
 yômār from ya-'amar. In other isolated cases 'alee is elided between two vowels, comp. -izki lêmôr from le'ěmor,

 mal'āx́". Sometimes also it falls away in writing, e. g.
 the contrary in the final sound of the syllable 'alep always loses its consonantal sound, and, for this reason, the preceding vowel must be heightened according to
 from $\operatorname{tamça'na.~}$

## 2. $\mathrm{V} O \mathrm{WELS}$.

§. 37. In the primitive Semitic there were only the vowels $a, i, u$ of which the long forms $\hat{u}, \hat{\imath}, \hat{u}$ arose partly through the contraction of $a+a, i+i$,

$$
3 *
$$

$u+u$ after the elision of an intermediate $y$ or $v$ ( (§.32), partly through compensative lengthening (§. 32, 2) in the same way also riurp qitô'r from gittoor and the po'èl, which has arisen from the pireel, partly through the lengthening of the tone-syllable in nominal ${ }^{1}$ forms, to which the participles and infinitives belong. These lengthened forms always belong to the primitive Semitic period, while the heightened forms first owe their origin to the peculiar development of the Hebrew. All final consonants except in the imperative, the apocopated future, and the 3 . fem. sing. of the perfect, were followed by a vowel or, in the status $a b s$. of the masc. sing. and fem. sing. and plural, by a vowel with a nasal. According to the Hebrew laws of final sound all these short final vowels fall away, together with the nasal of the status absolutus, while the long vowels remain. Comp. N̦̦ $^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} \bar{\alpha} \beta=$ Arabic 'abun or 'abin according to $\S$. 38 for 'abin, but in the status constructus according to $\S .32,3$, Rem., was elided ${ }^{2}$ even in old Semitic where it originally stood between rowels. This law of the final sound affords the reason why the present Hebrew final syllable is not treated as closed, and hence is not regarded as unchangeable. The few eases,
${ }^{1}$ E. g. in the participle pup quoté $l=q a \hat{t}+\underset{i}{ }$, of which the earlier form according to §. 2, Rem., was qatal, like the perfect. That the nominal forms are frequently diseriminated in primitive Semitic from the verbal forms through the lengthening, and in Hebrew through the heightening of the vowel of their tone-syllable, is oceasioned by the stronger emphasis, which rests in all languages upon the nominal forms.
${ }^{2}$ The $n$ of the affix ón also disappears in Hebrew proper
 but it returns when a second affix is added, comp. See §. 80.
in which an original short final rowel remains are to be specified in the doctrine of forms. These final vowels are protected through the joining on of suffixes, and have retained their existence under the inexact name of connecting vowel. Comp.
 original 'abdu-kum.
§. 38. Among the few vocal laws of the primitive Semitic the following should be especially emphasized, that a long vowel which was in an originally closed syllable must be shortened. The short vowel which has thus arisen can remain in Hebrew according to $\S .42$ only in unaccented syllables, while in accented syllables $i$, $u$ must be reheightened to $\bar{e}, \bar{o}$ and only $a$ can remain short. Comp. $\operatorname{arp}$ a $\bar{a} q \hat{u} \hat{u}^{\prime} m=$ original $y a-q \hat{u}-m u$, on the

 original ya-qum, after the same analogy


 from 'asarat.
§. 39. The Hebrew vowels are divided into 1) originally long, to which besides $\hat{a}, \hat{\imath}, \hat{u}$ belong $\hat{o}$, which has arisen partly from $\hat{a}$, partly from $a+v, a+u$; $\hat{\varepsilon}$ from $a+y, a+i$ and $\hat{\hat{a}}$ likewise from $a+y$, comp. §. 33. They are externally recognizable since, with the exception of $\hat{a}$ they are almost always indicated through scriptio plena, with 1 or $\cdot$. 2) Short vowels: $a, i, u$ together with $e$ from $i$, and $o$ from $u$. 3) Heightened: $\bar{a}$ and $\overline{\bar{a}}$ from $a, \bar{e}$ from $i, \bar{o}$ from $u$. 4) Volatilized: $\check{g}$ from all the short vowels, $\breve{a}$ from $a, \breve{e}$ from $i, \breve{o}$ from $u$. The two last classes, which do
not yet exist in the Arabic, have always arisen from the second.
§. 40. The original long vowels are unchangeable in Hebrew, except the case in $\S .38$. However $\hat{a}$ is very often obscured to $\hat{o}$, comp. רī dôr $=d \hat{a} r=d a-$

 remains less often, as in $=p_{T} q \hat{a} m$ from qarama, בתָּ
 deepened to $\hat{u}$ through the removal of the accent, comp.
 through a misunderstanding of the language, in the case mentioned in $\S .38$, it is confounded with the $\bar{o}$, which has arisen from $u$, and it is shortened to $u$, or
 nalô̂stan $=$ nalâass-t-an, heightened according to §. 42
 wise
 $=$ 'avay-at. On the contrary $\hat{\imath}$ and $\hat{u}$ remain almost ontirely unchanged, except through §. 38. Comp. © בּיָ

§. 41. The short rowels remain unchanged: 1) in sharpened syllables, when the sharpening is not merely
 the contrary $y o ̂ n$. 2) Generally in all originally closed syllables (therefore with the exception of the fimal syllables ac-
 course the immutability ceases, when the syllable in Hebrew is no longer closed through the elision of an 'Alep ( $\S .36$ ) or the insertion of an auxiliary rowel e. g.

dae the sharpening of which cannot take place on account of a guttural final sound, participate in the


 รs. 28. 29.
§. 4?. In all other cases the short vowels are subject to the following changes. Through heightening ${ }^{1}$ $a$ is changed to $\bar{a}$ or $\overline{\ddot{u}}, i$ to $\bar{e}, u$ to $\bar{o} 1$ ) in an accented closed syllable, and indeed always with $i$ and $u$ (comp.

 only in the pause and in the stat. abs., while this rowel
 barun, but the stat. cstr. . $q \bar{a} t a ́ l=q a t a l a, ~ I E D$ ַábbû. Other short vowels in accented closed syllables are only the $i$ in ay ' im and ax ' im , as well as the $e$, which has arisen from $i=u$, in pronouns and suffixes of the 2 . and 3 . persons plural. ${ }^{2}$ 2) Further the open tone syllable is heightened (Ex-




[^6]yagla[vu]. 3) The open syllable before the tone is also mostly heightened (exceptions in §. 43), e. g. קָּטְט
 büp $q^{\bar{u}-t}$ tad from $\left.q^{a-t} a-l a, 4\right)$ but the second syllable before the tone is very rarely heightened e. g. in אָּכִּ

 ening enters in the syllable after the tone, compare คุ
§. 43. On the contrary the short vowels are volatilized to half vowels ( $\breve{\circ}$, $\breve{a}, \breve{e}, \breve{o}$ ): 1) in the second syllable before the tone, as well as before those which

 rîn $n$, ם cases also in the fore-tone syllable, namely a) throughout in the status constructus, e. g.
 the status constrictus only possesses a secondary accent, b) in some nominal forms especially with $i$ or $u$ (in general $i$ is often, $u$ almost always volatilized in an
 qâtilîm, $q \overline{\bar{a}}-\underline{⿺}$
 sî-sĕ- - $e ́ m$.
§. 44. Since two half vowels are not allowed to follow each other in Hebrew, the syllable before the volatilized vowel can retain its short rowel e. g. קִּל:




§. 45. Moreover short vowels occur in open syl-

 $m i \bar{\delta}-b \dot{d}-r \bar{a}$, in which cases accented $a$ remains in an open syllable; 3) with monosyllabic nominal stems of mediae gutturalis or yôठ, which on account of $\S .52$ have taken an auxiliary sowel, because this auxiliary sound is not yet regarded as a full vowel which can

 the same analogy. Unheightened forms as $\sum_{\bar{Z}}$ ? $y i \beta(e) n$, コา. yir(e) $\beta$ stand in the apocopated future together
 yabn[a], yagl[a], yarb[a]. On the contrary the short vowel always remains 4 ) when the following half vowelled auxiliary sound has only been inserted to facilitate the pronunciation of a guttural, according to $\S .55$, even if this, according to $\S .56$, becomes a full rowel, because these auxiliary sounds originated too late, to affect the laws of the vowel sound. Comp. יָּ yai (a)-
 yá(c̆)-lä́ from yála[yu], in ná
 (yámudûna), ,
 pó(0)-lĕ-૪ém. ${ }^{1}$

1 *It is certainly questionable whether such forms as
 seems incompatible with Qāmeç hātụ̂, and the Babylonians write these forms without the small line which is the sign of the short vowel. See Delitzsch in his preface to "Libri Iobi", ed. Baer, Lipsiae 1875, p. vi.
§. 46. Independently of the exceptions given in §. 44 and 45 short vowels can only stand in unaccented closed syllables. Only $\boldsymbol{u}$ can remain short in all closed syllables (§. 42). If the short vowel retains its character, $u$ (except in a sharpened syllable) is almost always modified to $o$, $i$ frequently to $e$. Comp.

 siọ-rô'. The vowel $a$ very frequently becomes $i$ especially in a sharpened syllable and in the case of $\S .44$ :
 $\beta \stackrel{c}{-r}-\hat{e}^{\prime}$ from dabaray.
§. 47. The following vowel scheme is derived from the foregoing rules: 1) a remains unchanged in an originally closed syllable, 2) becomes $i$ a) before the sharpening ( $\S .46$ ), b) in open syllables before half vowels (§. 44 and 46) and in all other cases ${ }^{1} ; 3$ ) it is volatilized in the second open syllable before the tone, and in the pretonic syllable of the status constructus; 4) it is heightened a) to $\bar{a}$ in the closed tone-syllable of the status absolutus and in the open pretonic syllable, b) to $\overline{\ddot{i}}$ in the monosyllabic nominal forms of the tertiae $x, y$ and in the future and participle of the stems of the same class of verbs. - The vowel a more seldom retains its sound, since it generally becomes $\dot{\delta}$, which according to $\S .40$ can pass over into $\hat{u}$ and $u(\bar{o})$.

[^7]§. 48. The rowel $i, a)$ almost always remains unchanged in a closed, unaccented syllable ( $(4.46)$; b) if no sharpening follows, it often becomes $e$. c) It undergoes volatilization in an open unaccented syllable, not unfrequently also before the tone (§. 43). d) It is heightened to $\bar{e}$ in the tone-syllable and often in the open pretonic syllable (§. 42). - $\hat{\imath}$ always remains unchanged, in such forms except as ane nepqiyyïm = naqîyim, where it becomes iy.
§. 49. The rowel $u$, a) scarcely ever remains unchanged except in a sharpened syllable (§.41), b) almost always becomes $o$ in a toneless closed syllable (§. 45 fin.); c) becomes volatilized in an open unaccented syllable ( $\S .43$ ), and d) is heightened to $\bar{o}$ in an accented (§. 42). Sometimes it passes over into $i(e, \bar{e})$, thus
 half vowel has penetrated the Hebrew, word through the false analogy of the singular form), 'attém, comp. §. 42, Remark 2. - $\hat{u}$ always remains unchanged.
§. 50. There are no real diphthongs in Hebrew. Original ay, av reject their consonants before a following rowel (§. 32), but if no vowel follows they are each contracted to $\hat{e}$ and $\hat{o}$ through vocalization (
 זָ'
 is in several forms thinned to $\hat{\imath}$ (הָ layta) and appears sometimes to change its place with
 The combination $a+i$ always becomes $\hat{e}, a+u \hat{o}(\Omega)$



 part before original doubling $(5.34,3)$ and in the status absolutus of monosyllabic nouns, where ay, av through the adoption of an auxiliary vowel be-
 máv(e) $=$ mavt.
§. 51. The above may be represented in the following table of vowels:


The Latin uncial letters are chosen for the original Semitic in order to include $y, v$. The brackets indicate less common transitions of sound.
S. 52. Since a biconsonantal ending is only allowed in the few rowel combinations mentioned in s. 30; it is frequently necessary in Hebrew that after the
falling away of the old final rowels ( $\S .37$ ) an auxiliary vowel should enter between the two new final consonants, and indeed most commonly an $e$ with the heightening of the preceding vowel according to $\S .42,2$, whereby $a$ (except in the stems mediae $v$ and in the pause) does not become heightened to $\bar{a}$, but to $\overline{\bar{u}}$.
 'arçun,
 from rayagl[a], בท̣ vay-yèr(e) from vayirb $[a]$, by the side of the unheightened form $\begin{gathered}\text { vay-yir(e) } \beta \text {, comp. }\end{gathered}$ §. 45. In the stems mediae $y, i$ is adopted as an auxiliary rowel without heightening, e. g. ris zay(i) s from zaytun. In the stems mediae and tertiae gutturalis $a$ becomes the auxiliary, before which in the mediae gutturalis (as well as in general when the last consonant but one is a guttural) $a$ is not heightened, comp.

 batrahtun. If the last of the consonants in the final sound is an $y$ or a $v$ it is rocalized and the preceding rowel, when standing before final $y$, is volatilized, but before $v$ it is heightened, when the word

 from vayyistalu [a].
§. 53. The gutturals readily adopt an $a$ instead of the other short rowels in every case (especially before them, where this rowel was originally in use at least
 بִּ tintiz la-htóm. Yet not only the rowel a occurs, but also the rowel $e$, which has arisen through phonetic
retrogression from $i$, especially for the sake of rendering the first vowel unlike the one immediately following, provided it is or originally was $u$, e. g. yehbás from yihbaš, yahbas้, $-\bar{W}$ yalkzay. PaJaḥ furtive is inserted between a long, or even in some cases a heightened vowel, and final $h^{\circ} h$
 half guttural $r$ does not have so strong a preference for a, yet e. g. אחר:-1 vayyar' occurs together with -isv-? yir' $\frac{1}{\prime \prime}$ and even the fut. apocop. hio'il nopr rayyusar together
 tertiae $r, y$ and a part of the stems primae $n$, primae $r$, $y$ and tertiae 'alep manifest a decided preference for the forms with $\alpha$.
§. 54. A half vowel under the gutturals (except $r$ ) always becomes šĕv $\bar{a}$ compositum so that if the original rowel was $a$, it is changed to $\breve{\check{ }}$, if $i$, to $\check{c}$,

 hatîna. If the half vowel was first inserted in Hebrew as an auxiliary sound to facilitate the pronunciation (as is the case in the transposed radical forms qtal, qtil, qtul $=$ qatl, qitl, qutl), $\breve{a}$ is chosen; $\breve{e}$ is only placed after 'ellep and in the root havay, hayay. Comp.
 $=$ hyay.
§. 55. The Hebrew is fond of inserting a half vowel, which conforms to its predecessor, between a guttural (except $r$ ) and a consonant in order to render the guttural more perspicuous c. ©8. Pinew yel(i) iciq =
 himid,


This half vowel can be left out especially after $!!$, e. g.

§. 56 . This half vowel which originated in Hebrew must according to $\S .44$, when followed by another half vowel, become a full short vowel. E. g. בַּבֶֶּׁロ



§. 57. The vowels $\breve{e}$, e, which have arisen according to $\S \S .54-56$, are often simplified to $\breve{\imath}$, $a$, when the tone is mored forward, since $a$ as a simple sound is shorter than the mixed sound $e$ from $a+i$. Comp.
 mádtî, with

§. 58. In composition the prepositions retain according to $\S .44$ their short vowel and are not volatilized, when a half vowel follows. Comp. 'חִּ bi-pẹrí,
 a compound ségva is assimilated to it (the reverse occurs in the inflection according to §. 55), comp. ירֶ la'-

§. 59. The elision of a vowel, except at the end of a word, occurs only rarely in Hebrew. The
${ }^{1}$ The auxiliary vowel $a$ which is inserted between ', $!$ and $d, t$ when at the end of a word, is of still later origin and cannot effect any aspiration (§. 24), comp. nַלַּלָ $y i h(a) d$. - A series of new syllables arises in Hebrew as follows, 1) the transposed forms qtal, qtil, qtul receive a half vowel in order to render the pronunciation possible, compare §. 54, 2) the forms qatl, qitl, quil form their plural from qatal, qital, qutal.
elision of the rowels in the cases mentioned in $\S .26,2$ and $\S .61$ was characteristic even of the primitive Semitic. Yet such forms as rakat occur. Such gerundial infinitives as לִ do not belong here, since the infinitive first became dissyllabic in Hebrew through the insertion of a half vowel, and those forms have preserved the original vocalization.

## III．

## THE DOCTRINE OF THE FORMATION OF STEMS．

§．60．It does not lie within the prorince of He － brew grammar to trace the secondary formation of roots，which entered in a pre－Semitic age，to their monosyllabic originals（§．2）．Except the pronouns nothing now remains of these original radices but frag－ ments，which have been expanded to the present roots， and which almost always consist of three consonants．${ }^{1}$ On the other hand it is incumbent on us to prove two things：1）how，in the formation of stems，themes have arisen from these secondary roots which mostly combine the nominal and verbal significations in them－

[^8]selves, partly through seeming internal inflection, and partly through prefixes; 2) how these stems through the prefixes and affixes in the formation of words received a definite character as nouns and verbs. Finally another stratum, as it were, in this agglutinative process is formed by suffixion in the narrower sense i. e. through the annexation of the personal pronoun in an objective (accusative) or subjective (genitive) signification.
§. 61. In the primitive Semitic, although not in the Hebrew, comp. $\S .59$, it was allowed, for the sake of euphony, to suppress the short vowel of a syllable on placing a prefix before it or an affix after it, unless two consonants would thus occur at the end of a syllable (§. 30). We find, for example, in the formation of roots qatla together with qatala, in the formation of stems ma-qtala for ma-qatala and in the formation of words such feminines as qatal-ta together with quatala-ta, but always only qatla-ta, never qatl-ta.
§. 62. The form qatla, which has arisen according to §. 61, together with its modifications qitla and qutla, can by virtue of the vague character of Semitic vowels, be transposed to qtala, qtilu, qtula. This transposition is occasioned either as in the imperative according to $\S .30$ through the falling away of the final vowel, or as in the future, according to §. 61, through a prefix. Thus arise the imperative $q$ tul for $q u t l$, the future $y a-q t u l a$ and $y a-$ quul for ya-qutla and ya-qutl.
§. 63. The oldest form in which the stem of triliteral roots appears is qutala. It underlies the perfect and the original active participle $q$ al of verbs, and is the primitive form of nouns especially of attribntive adjectives and abstracts. According to the Hebrew laws
of sound this form must either become quatál or quatál (s. 37. 42); the former takes place in the perfect, the

 structus añ lüxam according to §. 43. If the second or third consonant was a $v$ or $y$, it was almost always elided according to $\S .32$, comp. $\boldsymbol{p}_{\mathrm{T}}$ qûm surrexit and

§. 64. The parallel forms qatila and qatula, Heb. $q \bar{a} t \bar{e} l$ and qūtól according to $\S .42$, which are usually found in the perfect, and in the active participle of intransitive verbs, arise through the weakening of the second $a$ to $i$ or $u$. Compare $2 n \bar{\Gamma}_{\text {B }} q \bar{a} r$ ép appropinquabat and appropinquans $=$ qariba, $\ddagger \operatorname{H}_{T} q$ autón parvus erat and parcus $=$ qatuna. In roots mediae $v, y$ the $v$ or $y$ are elided according to $\S .32$; e. g. ṇ̃ mề moriebatur and mortuus $=$ ma[v]ita, 芦立 bốs pudefiebat and pudefactus $=b a[v] u s ̌ a$.
§. 65. If the $a$ of the first syllable was weakened to $i$ the parallel form qitala arose, which in Hebrew in the stat. absol. become qétál according to §. 42. Comp.
 except as the plural of qutla (§. 70).
§. 66. The active participle qal, which has still retained the short vowel of the first syllable in the stems of the mediae $v, y$ and in the intransitive verbs (§. 63, 64), lengthens it in all other stems to $\hat{a}^{1}$, through

[^9]which the forms qâtala and qâtila, Heb. qôtâl and qôtél according to $\S .42 .40$, arise. The latter is the common form since $a$ through the preponderance of the preceding long rowel is weakened to $i$. The former is usual in the stems of the tertice $v y$, and in the feminines formed according to §. 61. Comp. Dīje' 'ôlàm

 dâbira.
§. 67. The form quatala, Heb. qātốl, which is also used as the infinitive absolute qal, arises from qatala through the lengthening of the second rowel. Compare
 halâka. The usual vocal laws are applied in the stems of the mediae or tertice $v, y$, comp. תin mồ mori $=$
 gälô' revelare $=$ galâ $[v] u$. - In like manner qatila and qatîla, Heb. qūtūl, qūtîl are lengthened forms of the intransitive qatila, qutula, from which through the relationship of the passive and intransitive significations, the latter serves as the passive participle qal, while the former with a like signification has more of a substantive character. Comp. 7 .ns, 'äsu'r. capticatus $=$ 'a-

 ‘ạsîy factus $=$ 'assinva (s. 31). - The following forms arise through the modification of the first short vowels to $i$ or $u:$ 1) qitilla or qutilu; Heb. according to $\S .43$ b, qę̣tâl mostly qẹ̆tôl ; 2) qitila, Heb. qeštil and 3) qu-
 ’èlô(u)h Deus = 'iliha, lẹpuè restis = lubisus. But after 'Aleo the half rowel is readily again transformed into the full rowel $\vec{e}$. since
otherwise the syllable would be hardly audible，comp．

§．68．The form qatla，which has arisen according to §．61，including its modifications qitla and qutla， are used in the formation of the imperative，construct infinitive and future qal，as follows：1）qutla is the fundamental form of the usual transitives，2）qitla of a class of the stems primae $v, 3$ ）and qutla not only of the intransitives，and the stems mediae and tertiae ghetturalis（see $\S .53$ ），but also of the stems tertiae $v, y$ ， tertice＇Aleo and the most of the primae $v, y$ ，since the changes，which these forms experienced in consequence of vocal laws，prevented them from being iufluenced after the analogy of the other forms and enabled them to retain the original vowel．－The imperative and the apocopated future ended even in primitive Se－ mitic with the last consonant，while the final vowel was rejected．－The transposition qtala，qtila，qtula mentioned in §． 62 always occurs in the verb except a special formation in the mediae geminatae，and before endings，joined to the imperative and infinitive，of which the initial sound is a rowel．According to this transposition qatla，qitla，qutla become qtala，qtila， qtula，relatively qtal，qtil，qtul，which in Hebrew are changed through the insertion of an auxiliary vowel according to §． 30 to qğtúl，qg̣tél，．qget toll provided no
 jace $=s$ škab，$-\mathfrak{t}$

 sóß circumdabit $=y \alpha-s u b b a$ together with $\operatorname{z宀⿱一𧰨刂}$ ：yissóß $=$ ya－sbuba．
§．69．In the noun the transcription to qtala takes
place less frequently, yet e. g. it appears in vir $=$ gbara, which is a collateral form of gä̈ $(e)$ r. = gabra. The form qtila occurs especially in derivatives from stems mediae ' $\bar{A} l e \varphi$ and in feminines primae $v$ comp.
 But usually the original position qutla, qitla, qutla remains in the noun. These forms of course in Hebrew, after the falling away of the final rowel, when no affixes follow must take an auxiliary vowel mostly $e$, but before and after gutturals a, after Yôd $i$. In this manner the forms $q \bar{a} t(e) l$ (in pausa usually according to §. 21 qāt $(e) l$, $q^{\bar{e} t}(e) l$ and $q \bar{o} t(e) l$ arise,
 $=$ yarha, $=$ niçha, $\ddot{\sim}$ opus $=$ puila. The $a$ is heightened to $\bar{a}$ before $v$, and remains short before gutturals, as well as before $y$.
 mus $=$ bayta, ${ }^{2}$ ַַַnal.(a)l rivus $=$ nalla, see §. $45 .-$ The double consonant which has arisen from the stems mediae geminatae and mediae $n$ must ( $\S .30$ ) lose its doubling at the end of a word, e. g. pin liōq statutum $=$ l!uqqa, $\mathfrak{\sharp}$ 'ap furor $=$ 'appa, 'anpa, $\mathfrak{n}$ yam mare $=$ yamma. $\mathrm{A} v$ or $y$ as second consonant is always softened into a rowel after $i$, $u$, also after $a$ with the exception, in most cases, of the status absolutus. The resulting long vowel is of course unchangeable. Comp.
 constr. $=$ marta. As third radical consonants $v, y$ (§. 52) are also softened into their corresponding vowels. The original vowel before $y$, except in pausa, is volatilized, before $v$ it is heightened. Compare gadya, in pausa

 feminines throughout, and with rare exceptions the forms before suffixes proceed from the original stem, not from that which was changed according to merely Hebrew vocal laws. Compare tiste malk:ó rex ejus = malka-hû,
 rium ejus $=q u d s ̌ a-h \hat{u},-\Pi \overline{z i}$ לָּ
 Nevertheless the feminine is also formed in and $-\bar{n}_{\square}$
§. 70. In Hebrew the stems qutla, qitla, qutla have no plural, but always derive it from the forms qatala, qitala, qutala. Compare $=$ malak-î-ma, st. constr. .
 lak-âta, بִפְּרי sip̣̆rê $=$ sipara-y, , $s-\hat{\imath}-m$ ( $b$ sometimes also stands after non-gutturals), st.

 those forms are excepted, which even in primitive Semitic had received a long vowel, diphthong or double consonant, and so had become unchangeable. E. g.


 this kiud have a dissyllabic stem only seldom in the

 from 3 henay $(i) l=$ hayla
§. 71. Conversely the form qatila often derives its st. constr. from qatla, or its transposed form quala



§. 72. Several nouns which are frequently used
 sanguis, in bēn filius, ra bai = ban-t filia,
 appear with only two stem-consonants, others (as $=\mathbb{N}$ 'āß pater, st. constr. . Mes 'uluî) indicate only in some forms traces of a third consonant. It seems however that one must consider these nouns as belonging to a class which already at a very early period lost its third consonant, but not as the remnants of original monosyllabic and bi-consonantal roots. Such remnants occur, except in the pronoun, only in the pilpēl, where the monosyllabic primary root became a quadriliteral through doubling and as such could also maintain its existence in the later triliteral period of the language ( $(5.73$ ).
§. 73. The forms, which hare arisen from the reduplication of the root and which are cognate with the pire $\bar{e}$, are common to the noun as well as the verb. Actual repetition of the entire root in its original monosyllabic form appears in the pilpel, which in some of the stems med. $v$ and meed. yomin, takes the place of the pi"cl. Comp. trivit $=$ kal-kila, kil-kila, in the passive Se? kul-kinl nutricbatur (present secondary ront לas), לaziz gal-gil rota (present root isis). Through an abreviation of the root the reduplicated form qutal-tala arose, comp.
 mod. $r, y$ the still more abbreviated form qutlalu stands for the piec c , e. g. nnita mồ's interficere and interjecit
$=$ mavt－ita，pass．anin rômám exaltabatur $=$ rarm－ama， ที่ シัָ
§．74．The fundamental form of the pie $\overline{\mathrm{c}} \mathrm{l}$ and its cognate nouns qattala（Hebr．qattail）has probably arisen from qatlala．It occurs unchanged in the infin．constr．， imperat．and fut．piceel of the stems tert．gutt．and tert． $v, y,{ }^{\prime}$ e．g．nievo salláh mitte $=$ sallalı and mittere $=$ salal－ latha，which is weakened to quttila（Hebr．qattél）in the same verbal forms in other roots，comp． bér loquere $=$ dabbir and loqui $=$ dabbira．In the perfect of the pitel the form is qittala or qittila（Hebr．qittall， qittél），the latter of which in nouns indicates abnormal

 quebatur $=$ dibbira， 7 ！ passive has quttalu，comp．חive sullál mittebatur．－The form qûtila，pass．qûtala（Hebr．qôtêll，qôtál）which takes the place of the pi＂el in the stems med．gemin．appears to have arisen through compensative lengthening from quttala，e．g．ニュio sôpèp circumdedit and circumdare $=$ sûbiba，בミ่̇o sôßaỉ circumdabatur and circumdari $=$ sâ－ baba．－The nominal forms are distinguished here as elsewhere through the lengthoning of the second vowel， which in the stat．cstr．is still sometimes short．Thus arises the form quttâla，which serres in the piee el as an infin．absol．，and which in nouns expresses habitual characteristics，Hebr．qattê＇l，in the infin．qattô＇l．Comp． בַּּ gannẩ fur，דing bãrồ\％benedicere $=$ barrâka．Qit－ tâla（Hebr．qittồl，comp．hiza giblô＇r lieros＝gibbara） appears as a collateral form，from which through com－ pensative lengthening instead of the doubling the form qitâla（Hebr．qitồl）arose，comp．－ivיp qiṭồr fumus $=$ qittara $=$ qittâra．The form quttâla is used for the infin．absol．of the passive（Hebr．quttôl，comp．$\quad \begin{gathered}\text { in }\end{gathered}$ gumnốß furto abstralii $=$ gunnâba）．－If the second
vowel was already weakened to $i$ or $u$ the forms qattila and qattûla also qittûla arose through lengthening.
 šiqqû's abominatio.
§. 75. The prefixes of the stem-formation ha, hin (na) and lit are common to the noun and verb. The prefix ha has probably arisen from sa (which still

 has a causative signification. If it is prefixed to the verbal stem the customary hip'il forms ha-qtala or haqtila arise (§. 61), with the weakening of the rowel of the prefix lii-qtala or lieqtila, also ha-qtîla and hi-qtîla according to $\S .47$ remark, for the passive liu-qtala



 templum $=h_{l a-y k i l a . ~}{ }^{1}$ The form ha-qtâla (今. 7) is rare, as in ritive hacçĉalá salvatio $=$ hatnçâla-ta. Sometimes the prefix ha is changed to ' $a$, comp. --TMive 'azkiritú commemoratio $=$ ' $a-z k \hat{a} r(a-t a$. Other forms with prefixed ${ }^{\prime} a$ or ' $i$ are probably only of euphonic origin ( $\S .30$ ) or have arisen from the transposition of the rowel,


§. 76. The prefix na, which is employed for the nipoal, appears when the following consonant retains its rowel in the form hin, whose $n$ is always assimil-

1 *The Assyriologists consider this not as an original Semitic, but as an Accadian word which signifies grcat housc. It has howerer certainly been hebraized.
ated; thus arise the stems na-qtala, ni-qtala, together with lin-qatala, hin-qatila, in the infin. absol. also hin-


 hinnā̃ô'n dari = hin-natâna.
§. 77. The prefix lit (Hebr. hi玉), which has a reflexive signification, and is perhaps etymologically related to the particle $\pi$ n, scarcely ever occurs in Hebrew except before the piee el and its cognate rerbal forms. Comp.
 The prefix ta before nominal forms appears to have had another origin (§. 79).
§. 78. The prefix ma only belongs to the nominal formation. It has an indefinite signification and is identical with the affix of the rocable formation which has the same sound. Before the simple stem it commonly indicates the action, the place or the instrument. Thus arise the forms ma-qtala, ma-qtila, ma-qtula; mi-qtala, mi-qtila, ma-qtâla, mi-qtâla, ma-qtîla. Comp.
 sertum $=$ mi-dbara, NT:? mizbē $(a)!$ ara $=$ mi-zbiha,
 mallîša. - The same prefix ma before the stem which has been doubled or increased through ha, hit (piee el, pa"ēl, pilpēl, hiopîl, hijpa"ēl and their passives) serves to indicate the participle, but is then weakened to mu, which in Hebrew is volatilized to me.. After it




 mi亏-yalléd registro inscriptus $=$ me้-hī-yallé̀ $=$ mu-hitvallicla, כִּ $\overline{\text { è }} \boldsymbol{\prime}=m u-h i t-m a h-m i h a$.
§. 79. Probably $y a$ and ta should be regarded as petrified prefixes of the vocable formation, which usually only occur before the future to indicate the third person masc. and fem., but which have in some cases maintained their existence as nominal prefixes from a period when as yet there was $n o$ sharp distinction between the noun and verb. ${ }^{1}$ The last rowel is not unfrequently lengthened, as in Arabic, for the sake of distinguishing these forms from those of the
 qût pera, 7 , retributio, from the hiọill --गָin tồü̆ laudatio $=$ tĕ-hu-vdaya-t.
§. 80. All the apparent affixes of the stems are merely petrified forms of the rocable formation. The indefinite $m a$, which usually becomes na, and before which the final rowel of the stem cither falls away, remains, or is lengthened should be reckoned first of all under this class. Comp. $\operatorname{siv}$ sullim scala $=$ sulla-m, a pionyôn solutio collateral of pion pioyôn = pilyci-

 dence with its origin this affix stands after the fominine ending (e. g. iṇy? livyĩán = liryu-tu-na) and falls away at the end of proper names, since these is such

[^10] silûní. ${ }^{1}$
§. S1. The ending ayya, iyya which has arisen from the genitive of the plural (s. 90) serves in the formation of patronymics, gentiles, and other adjectives denoting a property. By appending the feminine affix $t$ the ending iyya receives an abstract signification. The related ending aya, ay perluaps belong to the genitive sing. (§. 88). Comp. ©

 pium $=$ r'iş- $\hat{-}$-t; $\pi u p o s$. - Many abstracts are also formed by means of the ending avva, which has arisen from the nominative plur. and to which the feminine affix is united. Comp.
 malĕّ犭uyyô" = malaku-v-v-ât; the derivation of this form from the dissyllabic stem indicates that it is properly a plural, comp. §. 70.
${ }^{1}$ The combination of the affix $n$ with the nunnation and of he affix $i$ with the gen. plur. has already been made by Tegnér, "De nunnatione arabica", Lund 1365.

## IV. <br> DOCTRINE 0F THE FORMATION OF W0RDS.

## 1. PRONOMINAL INFLECTION.

§. 82. The personal pronoun is in Hebrew: 1. sing.

 nálnû, once

 'attén and and - 为
 - Bīㅠ.. hénnā. Several deviating forms have been retained as suffixes and verbal endings, especially $y=y a$ in the 1 . sing. and $v=v a$ in the 3 . sing. mas., hi for the 3. sing. fem., $k$ instead of $t$ through all the forms of the scond person, conversely $t$ for $k$ in the 1. sing., finally t $\hat{u}$ for the 2. plur., and $m o \hat{o}$ for the 3. plur. mas. In the Pentateuch $\mathfrak{s i n}$ takes the place of with only eleven exceptions. ${ }^{1}$

[^11]§. 83. The demonstrative is formed from the stem $z a$ (orig. $d a$ ) and has in the masculine $-\bar{z} \overline{\bar{u}}=z a$, which in the feminine through the addition of the
 The form ir ziv, which has been increased through the nominative ending, is used as common to both genders. Compounded, rare collateral forms are rive halluzz
 l $\bar{\alpha} \tilde{z}$ (comm.). ${ }^{1}$ The plural is always -ís 'éll $\overline{\tilde{u}}$, in the Pentateuch also with the article

elements of the vocable formation) is compounded of two stems $h a$ and ra. Only in this way does it seem possible to explain the Ethiopic form (Dillmann §. 65) and the suffix $h \hat{a}$ for the 3. sing. fem. The original common form was divided at a later period according to the gender, since the collateral form $y a$ was used for the feminine so that a new pronoun was formed out of ha-ya, hi-ya, ht̀'. The plural added the indefinite pronominal root $m a$ to the singular, the double repetition of which indicated the plural, compare especially the Phoenician suffix of the 3 . plur. ニン. (See Schröder, "Die phönizische Sprache", Halle 1869, §. 57.) $h \hat{u}-m-m a$ or $h \hat{i}-m-m a$ must then (§. 38) become himma (Hebr. according to §. 42 hé $\begin{gathered}m m a \bar{a}) \text {. The discrimination of the gender }\end{gathered}$ through $n$ or $n$ is merely the employment of a collateral form for the sake of expressing a logical distinction. The true root of the 2. person is certainly $t a$, to which an is prefixed. The fem. was formed still later by the annexation of $h \hat{i}$ 'after this had become a mark of the feminine gender. The plural was probably designated through the annexation of the affixes $v a(y a)$ $=u(i)$ and $m a$, and here also at a later period by means of $m$ or $n$ an artificial distinction in gender was established. - In the 1. person an seems likewise to be a prefix. The plural is formed in a similar manner, as in the 2 . and 3 . person. In the suffixes and personal endings the $t$ of the second and the $k$ of the first person are often interchanged.

1 *Compare Fleischer's explanation of these pronominal forms in the "Sitzungsberichte der sächsischen Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften", 1874, S. 143.
$h a$ (orig. hal) is evidently cognate with 'ellü̈; its $l$ is always assimilated to the following consonant, hence its vowel before gutturals is subject to the vocal laws contained in §. 28, 29. Aftcr the prepositions bĕㄹ, le $l_{\circ}^{4}$, ke, $h$ of the article is clided, see $\S .35$.
§. 84. The relative is generally times še or ša with the doubling of the following consonant. - The interrogative and indefinite ${ }^{1}$ is for things $\boldsymbol{i} \underset{\sim}{\square} m \bar{u}$, for persons $m \hat{\imath}$ (originally a genitive). The first form appears in pausa as mū, and likewise before gutturals, but before $h \bar{u}, h \bar{u}$, ' $\bar{a}$ it becomes $m \overline{\ddot{a}}$ (§. 29). Sometimes it loses its accent and is written ma with a real or virtual (§.28) doubling of the following consonant; when united with prepositions both $m \bar{a}$ and $m \overline{\ddot{a}}$ occur, but l $\bar{a} m \overline{\ddot{a}}$ is found only thrice 1 Sam. i, 8.

## 2. DECLENSION.

§. 85. Declension is accomplished in Hebrew through the amexation of three affixes, namely of the feminine affix $t a$, the nominative affix $v \cdot a$, which was wanting in the accusative and became $y a$ in the genitive, and of the indefinite ma, which corresponds to our indefinite article. The plural is indicated through the doubling of one of these affixes ${ }^{2}$, yet doubled ma

[^12]never occurs in Hebrew, except in the pronominal inflection. These suffixes, as well as the final sound of the stem which precedes them, can lose the vowel. When this happens $x$ and $y$ are changed into their corresponding vowels $u, i$. In the explanation of the Hebrew forms it should always be remembered, that short final vowels fall away (§. 37), but are protected through the annexation of suffixes; further that the case-endings as such, with the exception of the local accusative, are no longer to be discriminated; and finally that the definite form, without na, now only stands in the stat. constr. and before suffixes.
§. 86. The definite masc. accus. sing. therefore represents in the noun, just as the perfect represents in the verb, the pure stem without any ending, e. g. sûsa equum. The indefinite form joins on its own affix which even at an early period had become rowelless: sûsa-m equum aliquem. Both forms must become in Hebrew Sio sûs (§. 37). Nevertheless many remnants of the old ending have here been retained. Before most of the personal suffixes the final $a$ of the stem remains, comp. 'כוּכ sûsó' equus ejus $=$ sûsa-hû. The ending $a$, which of course is heightened, is retained to quite an extent to indicate the direction whither; sometimes also the place where. It is unaccented and effects no


 tuation strangely enough almost always retains the entirely unnecessary auxiliary vowels, which have also entered according to $\S$. 52 before the accusative endings, changing them into half vowels. Thus arise impossible forms with the tone upon the antepenult, as

ought more correctly to be written 꾸구눈 habbáytā = halbayta. ${ }^{1}$ After a false analogy this ending is also
 daeos. The indefinite accusative ending $a-m$ appears partly unchanged (Hebr. am) partly lengthened to $\hat{\hat{c}}-\mathrm{m}$

 $=$ šilšâ-m. Comp. §. 80 .
§. 87. The nominative ending $u$ usually crowds out the preceding final $a$ of the stem, and must then itself fall away in Hebrew. Thus sîs $[a]-u$ equus as well as the indefinite form sûs[a]-u-m equus aliquis must become on sûs. In some examples of the stat. cstr. the $a$ has perhaps been retained and has been blended with $u$ to a diphthong, which must then remain in Hebrew; yet the $\hat{o}$ in these examples is possibly an error in the punctuation for $\hat{u}$. Comp. iver: fons $=$ ma-yana-u. These forms probably belong exclusively to the language of the Pentateuch, comp.
 The first example is repeated several times in later books as a citation. Ps. cxiv, 8 is to be explained in the same way. - Before the pronominal suffixes no nominal ending can be proved with certainty.
§. 88. The genitive ending $i$, which has arisen from the nominative ending, likewise occasions the falling away of final $a$. Hence it must disappear in Hebrew not only in the definite form sûs $[a]-i$, equi, but also in the indefinite sûs[a]-i-m equi alicujus, so that only כהו

1 * The author here considers the consonant with Sę via mobile as a real syllable, but this viow is not sustained by the Jewish grammarians.
sûs remains. Still the ending has been retained in many cases before suffixes, comp. כוּפֵּ sîsé-nûu equus noster $=s \hat{u} s-i-n \hat{u} . \quad$ Moreover it is several times lengthened to $\hat{\imath}$ in stat. cstr., comp. cồn, desertor gregis $={ }^{`}$ âzib- $\hat{\imath}^{1}{ }^{1}$
§. 89. The plural, since it is indicated through the doubling of an affix, could not be formed from the accusative, which consisted merely of the stem. The nominative plural was originally sûsa-va-va, and still exists in the abstract form, mentioned in $\S .81$, almost unchanged, since there only, as is commonly the case, the rowel standing between the two identical consonants is elided. After the affixes had lost their vowel, $u-u$ became $\hat{u}$ before which the final sound of the stem disappeared
 ejus $=$ ta-gmûla- $\hat{-}$-l $\hat{u}$ ). This ending however now exists only in the verb, since the noun uses only the genitive ending. - The indefinite nomin. plur. s $\hat{u}-s[a]-u-u-m a$, the last vowel of which must remain in primitive Semitic (§. 37), has only been retained at times in the verb, and with the transformation of the $m$ into $n$, comp. $k i '-u-u-m a-n \hat{n}$, ,
§. 90. The plural of the Hebrew noun is now exclusively formed through the doubling of the genitive ending. The original form of this plural was sîsa-ya$y a$, which still appears almost completely in the adjective formation mentioned in $\S$. 81. As a rule however both genitive affixes lose their rowel and then blend with $\hat{\imath}$ or $y$, which form a diphthong with the pre-

[^13]ceding rowel (Hebr. ay, $\hat{e}, \quad \ddot{u})$. The regular form is $\hat{e}$, while ay and $\ddot{a}$ only occur before some suffixes. Thus

 say-hâ, כָּכֵ sûsáy equi mei = sûsa-y[ya]. - In the definite form there is no external distinction between the dual and plural.
§. 91. The indefinite form assumes the suffix $m a$, which in primitive Semitic must retain its final vowel (§. 37) to hinder the shortening of the long vowel, and the identity thus arising between the singular and plural. The older formation which corresponds to the definite form has maintained itself by the insertion of an auxiliary vowel (§. 52) with the signification of the dual, comp. כיַַּּusá-y(i)m equi $d u o=s \hat{s} a-y-m a$, moreover in two plurals $\quad$ !! may(i)m aquae and $\square!\underline{\cup}$ in the usual indefinite plural form final $a$ of the stem is crowded out by the following $\hat{\imath}$; thus arises sûsîm equi aliqui $=$ sûs $[a]-i-i-m a$. Sometimes $n$ occurs instead of $m$, as in the verb, e. g. צִּ midd-in vestes.
§. 92. The feminine affix is ta, or abbreviated $t$ (as in the verb), which was followed in the nom. and gen. by the affixes $u, i$ and in the indefinite form by $m$. But according to the Hebrew law of final sound everything after $t$ must fall away, with a few ex-

 vita $=$ hayya-ta-u, gen. , $b a-t-i$ (cxcept, of course, before suffixes, as incio sî-
 nostra $=$ sûsa-t-i-nû), so that cvery distinction between the different casus and status disappeared. A double
feminine form however arose in Hebrew according as the final vowel of the stem preceding the affix $t a$ was elided (s. 61) or not. In the latter case the form now sûsa $a$ equa $=$ sûsa-ta arose, which remains in the st. constr. and before suffixes. But in the stat. absol. since the $t$ is not protected by a close connection with something following it is lost, and then the preceding $a$ is heightened (§. 42), comp. . כוּדָ sîsáa equa aliqua $=s \hat{u}-$ $s a[t a-m]$. If the final vowel of the stem fell away before $t a$, after $t$ had become the last letter of the word according to the Hebrew laws of final sound, it was necessary that the auxiliary vowel $e$ should be inserted and the preceding syllable heightened. But if the last consonant of the stem was a guttural, $a$ was accepted as an auxiliary rowel and the preceding $a$ remained unheightened (see the segolate forms $\S .52$ ). This manner of formation is especially frequent with participles and infinitives; it is impossible with stems which have no rowel before the final consonant. Comp.


 rowel in the last syllable of the stem must naturally be shortened ( $\S .38$ ), but an $i$ or $u$ thus shortened was again heightened in Hebrew. Comp. rnַּּ
 fem. n
 ta-y-ma, but singular $\boldsymbol{\sim}$ Of course no auxiliary rowel is allowable, if the preceding consonant was either assimilated to the $t$, or was an 'āleo, or if on account of Hebrew vocal laws it had
 'ĕmë̄̄ veritas $=$ 'amat-ta $=$ 'aman-ta, before suffixes

hattâ $\hat{\prime}-t a$; $=$ saby. - The shorter feminine formation remains just the same in the stat. cstr. and abs., but is sometimes appropriated by the stat. cstr., when the stat.

 ceding syllable the original $a$, although it has become $i$ in the masculine, e. g. . $q \hat{o} t \tilde{a} l(e) \underset{\sim}{c}=q \hat{a} t a l-t a$.
§. 93. The plural of the feminine was probably formed through a repetition of the feminine affix, whereby the first $t$ was elided even at an early period. ${ }^{1}$ The status and casus endings, which afterwards followed, fell away together according to the Hebrew law of final sound, so that only one form remained in use for the stat. abs. and cstr., namely nizvo sûs-o 0 ' $\ddagger=$ sûsât $=$ sûs $\hat{a}-[t] a-t a$ or $s \hat{u} s a-[t] a-t a-m$. A special ending for the indefinite form has only been retained in the verb (in the Aramaic it has also been retained in the noun, e. g. חֵי חיוּ, the stat. absol. plur. from animal) since here also the second $t$ was elided and only the indefinite $m$, which was changed to $n$ remained. - Before suffixes the plural endings of the masculine are superadded after the feminine plural ending (comp. התוֹת according to a false analogy, peculiar to the Hebrew.
§. 94. In order to designate the feminine dual, a collateral form was chosen, which indicated the plural through the repetition of the affix of the case, and

[^14]not the affix of the gender which was placed only once.
 sa-ta-i-i, before suffixes sûsä̀ $=s \hat{u} s a-t a-i-i-n \hat{u}$, in the indefinite form with the annex-
 aliquae $=$ sûsa-ta-y-ma.
§. 95 . The above survey shows, that while the Hebrew has retained the distinction between the genders throughout from the old Semitic declension, it has ceased almost completely to distinguish the cases, and has maintained the distinction between the stat. absol. and cstr. only in the plural of the masculine and in the dual, while in the singular of the feminine it has produced a new form. Yet a few words still occur, which in the masc. sing. have retained the primitive distinction between the stat. absol. and cstr., since their definite form in primitive Semitic, ended through contraction, in a long vowel, which was shortened before the characteristic $m$ of the indefinite form according to $\S .38$; hence while the final syllable of the st. absol. was subject to the Hebrew laws of final sound, that of the stat. cstr. was excepted. Comp. יִֻ̣ ' 'üpi pater,
 'abî-m ('abî-ma). In like manner absol. $p \hat{\imath}$ os, stat. absol. -- $\bar{v} p \bar{a}$, originally pa-m. - Another distinction is this, that the nominal stems which end in ay have $\bar{a}$ in the stat. ubsol., and $\hat{e}$ in the stat. cstr. e. g. -rinn hāzzä̀ propheta, originally hâza[ya-m], stat. constr. .rin h hôoê, the original form of which is probably a genitive hâa a $y$ y]i, where the short final vowel, on account of the close connection of the governing

[^15]with the following word in the stat．cstr．has been retained，and blended with the preceding rowel．In Ethiopic also the short rowel of the stat．cstr．com－ monly remains．${ }^{1}$
§．96．All other distinctions between the stat．abs． and stat．cstr．depend only upon the later Hebrew rocal laws．While the first open syllable before the tone in the stat．absol．is heightened according to a universal rule（ $\S .42,43$ ），and only the second syllable before the tone is rolatilized，the first open syllable before the tone in the stat．cstr．must be volatilized，since it has merely a secondary accent，but the second retains its short rowel in order that two half rowels may not immediately follow one another．${ }^{2}$（Exceptions are very

 In other cases the $a$ of an accented closed syllable in the stat．cstr．is never heightened，although this height－ ening generally occurs in the stat．abs．${ }^{3}$ ，e．g． populus，stat．cstr．$\boxed{y}$＇$a m$ ．All the vowel changes of the Hebrew declension can be explained by means of these two rules．Comp．ェミฺT hāұám sapiens，primitive form




1 ＊See Dillmann，＂Grammatik＂，§．144a．
${ }^{2}$ The volatilization of the pretonic syllable even in the st．abs．is peenliar to the fem．form，which rejects final $a$ of the stem before $t$ ，e．g．下כֶּ

3 ＊The noun $\bar{\square} y \bar{m}$ ，which commonly retains its $\bar{a}$ in the stat．cstr．with，as well as without，following maqqeip，is an ex－ reption．See Luzzatto，＂Grammatica della Lingua Ebraica＂，P’a－ dova $1853, \S$ sio．


 other theme after the model, provided he observes the following particulars.
§. 97. According to §. 46, when $a$ would necessarily remain short in an open syllable on account of a following half rowel, it is frequently modified to $i$, e. g.
 accented syllable, comp. inạ zijuhoó sacrificium ejus $=$ zabha-lû. In both cases $u$ almost always becomes $o$,
 sunctuarium ejus $=q u d \stackrel{a}{ } a-h \hat{u}$. On the contrary $i$ (even the $i$ which has arisen from $a$ ) is more rarely modified to $e$; most commonly only with a preceding guttural, possibly also with a following labial. Comp. © $e$ -

 ßĕlể vincula.
§. 98. In an open pretonic syllable $u$ is always heightened, $i$ is very frequently not heightened, but volatilized, especially before and after long vowels, which through their ascendency readily suppress an originally short vowel. For this reason and on account of their half verbal character this rolatilization occurs mostly in participles and infinitives as well as in the form qittila. Comp. qôtêllî̀m interficientes $=$ qâtilìm, , gationes $=m a-v^{\bullet} i d-i ̂ m$.

[^16]§. 99. An exchange of stems (metaplasm) occurs especially in the following cases. 1) The monosyllabic nominal forms qutl[a], qitl[a], qutl[a], always form their plural (not their dual) from the dissyllabic stems qatal[a], qital[a], qutal[a]. Comp. דֶ?

 lakay. 2) The transposition of qatla, qitla, qutla to qtala, qtila, qtula sometimes takes place in the noun, regularly in the infinitive when no complete vowel follows, comp.

 serted inorganic half vowel, see §. 49), moreover in

 or according to the original position ภiーsมี be'e้rổ $=$ bi'ar-ât. 3) The form qatila sometimes assumes in stat. cstr. the form qatla, or transposed qtala. Comp. 5 T

 zaqna. 4) The form qattâla dispenses with its lengthening, which probably first entered subsequently, in the stat. cstr. the masc. sing. and fem. plur., usually too before suffixes of the feminine plural, comp. $\ddot{\square}$

§. 100. The last consonant of the stem sometimes undergoes euphonic doubling, most frequently in the form quaula, to render the preceding vowel unchangeable (§. 41). Comp. zmanîm, aִּ



second radical consonant occurs less frequently; it is almost exclusively confined to the stat. abs. Comp. 'issâr prohibitio $=$ 'isâra, , फ़ịn hizzayô'n visio $=$ hizayân,

§. 101. Final ay (Hebr. $\overline{\bar{a}}$, stat. cstr. ê) of the stem almost always falls away before the endings of the feminine the plural and the suffixes. Comp. .rin hâzä́á propheta $=$ hâaza [ya-m], stat. cst. $\quad$-inim h hôzêt $=$ h. $\hat{a}-$
 hôzà $\bar{\jmath}=$ hâzaya-t, plur. . cstr.
 hâzéht̂u propheta ejus $=$ hâz[ay]-i-hû. Still single forms also occur before suffixes, in which the ay has been retained, e. g. بִּקְקָּ miqnä̀ $\bar{a}$ possessio tua = maqnay-ka,上-wsin mar'hém aspectus eorum $=$ ma-r'ay-hum. ${ }^{1}$ In the feminine of the infinitive the vowel which precedes the elided $y$ blends with the following, comp. гімา vi-
 ha-hyayu-t.
§. 102. The endings iyya and ruya (from uvva), although originally themselves plural forms, receive the endings of the gender and number in the usual manner; only the plural has contracted im from -iyy$\hat{i} n$ and in the sing. iyy always becomes $\hat{\imath}$ and uvv becomes $\hat{u}$; the connection of the ending of the fem. sing. with the former is frequently and with the latter




1 *It should however be remarked the yô $\delta$ of such forms may in many cases (e. g. Dan. i, 5) indicate the plural.

 $\chi^{u}$ uy ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ '̃, comp. §. 81 .
§. 103. The suffixes appended to the noun which indicate the genitive of the personal pronoun are only shortened forms of these same pronouns. In their formation they differ rery slightly from those appended to the verb. They are: 1 . sing. $\hat{\imath}^{\prime \prime}$ or $y ; 2$. sing. masc. k $\dot{a}$; 2. sing. fem. $k ; 3$. sing. mase $-h \hat{u},-v ; 3$. sing. fem. hû, $h$; 1. plur. -nî; 2. plur. masc. Kém; 2. plur. fem. Kén; 3. plur., masc. hém, m, poet. mô; 3. plur. fem. hén, n. The old final rowel has been retained before them (§. 37), hence the monosyllabic stems appear in their original form. This final vowel is either a (Hebr. $\bar{a}, \bar{a}, \stackrel{\breve{c}}{ }$ ) or $i$ (Hebr. $\bar{e}$ ) and has the tone, except when it is rolatilized, or absorbed by the rowel of the suffix. If the final rowel had already become long in primitive Semitic by fusion with the preceding rowel, the suffixes are naturally joined directly to this long rowel; but a rocalization of the final consonant, which first entered according to Hebrew rocal laws, is ignored by the far older forms of the suffixes. Comp. the suffix-form Ọ ph; but piry piryen $=$ pary-i-n from par perr fructus $=$ pary. Nerertheless $r \hat{\imath}$-xém also occurs before kem, hém. In the plural and dual of both genders the suffixes are always joined to the masculiue plural ending ay (Hebr. ay, $\hat{\hat{a}}, \hat{e}$ ) so that the feminine has a double pluxal ending before the suffixes.
§. 104. The nomus with suffixes appear in the


the plur. and dual masc. כַּ sûsáy $=$ sus $a-y-y[a]$, comp. §. 34,3 , in the fem. plur
 1. plur. קָּ pûnn


 ふên $\hat{u}=$ sûsa-ta-y-n $\hat{u}$; 2. masc. sing.



 with a full final vowel only


 $=$ sûsa-lı̂̂ (poetically with the genitive ending seh $\hat{u}=$ sîs $-i-h \hat{u}$ ) in the poetical form of the plural
 Tכָּ, to be pronounced according to the punctation sîsáv, certainly from sûsay-ĥ̂ ; 3. fem. sing. تָּ

 plur. פִּ $=$ sûsa-hum, poetically also trọ sûsáabô, in the plur.



§. 105. The rowels before the suffixes are changed entirely according to universal vocal laws. The pretonic syllable should be heightened. The syllables at a greater distance from the tone should be rolatilized, and open syllables which stand before a half rowel
should retain their short vowel. Only the suffix ka forms an exception to the latter rule, before which
 rẹ̆x $\chi^{\bar{a}}=d a b a r a-k a$ together with barakum, but regularly ${ }^{2}$



 biop qe:tōl $=q$ tula $=q u t l a$. - Volatilization of the pretonic syllable often occurs with $i$, especially in participles, comp. nomen meum šẹ̆̆

 mốéz. On the contrary $i$ is very rarely height-

 lhaçirât-ay[ya].
§. 106. The stems which end in ay lose this termination not only before all endings, but also before suffixes. Comp. -rुin h hôzä́a prophetı $=$ hâaza[ya-m], stat. cstr. .



 unabbreviated forms sometimes also occur, which then naturally exhibit the same vocal phenomena as the plurals with suffixes, most frequently before hem, hem, e. g. ם
 stat. cstr.
 .
[ay]a-y, with suffixes


 $y$-ka etc.
§. 107. We present here together for the sake of clearness several unusual forms of declension which have already been partially touched upon. The monosyllabic stem ய̈内ㄴ rôš caput $=$ ra'ša has in the plural

 ba'ra are unchangeable. In like manner urbs 'îr


 plural unchangeable and do not form their plural from a
 kẹlê from cstr. יֵּ : yĕmê from ai yôm dies = yavma are evidently based upon a theme which deviates from the singular.
 is obscure and perhaps only rests upon an arbitrary

 'anęšê $=$ 'anaša-y. Its feminine -
 fixes 评 only discriminated in the plural from the masculine
 form

 $\Gamma \equiv b a \approx=$ bant, with suffixes in bittô', plur. nizu bā-
nô'ŋ, stat. cstr. תitzּ
 finite form, hence in the stat. cstr. and before suffixes according to $\S \S .37 .95$ a final $\hat{\imath}$, therefore in the stat. cstr. . forms appear as plurals: nizu 'āpô's patres and 'alhi'm fratres, the latter with implied, but probably only euphonic doubling, which also remains before the suffixes (comp. Nָ 'aluầzu, , to §. 29), but in the stat. cstr. צֵ 'alhê it disappears. The words תimin hamoô's socrus and תimus 'āhô'亏 soror $=$ 'ahaya-t, plur. ת תinș 'ăhāyó's occur as feminines. An


§. 108. The Hebrew numerals are: 1 Tŗ̦̦ 'āhád $=$ 'alhád according to $\S .29=$ 'ahada with implied

 numbers $3-10$ have the peculiarity, that their masculine is connected with the feminine of that which is numbered and vice versa. ${ }^{2}$ In the stat. cstr. of the fem. they generally have the form which elides the final radical vowel before $t$ of the ending. Hence



1 *The form reš lene after the volatilization of the initial vowel has merely remained as an etymological sign.

2 *Fleiseher considers the numerals in this case as substantives which maintained themselves as such by their dissimilarity to the person or thing numbered; see his treatise "Ueher cinige Arten der Nominalapposition im Arabisehen" in "Berichte der Sächsischen Gesellsehaft der Wisseuschaften", 1862.

 6 نِّ
 šiß゚広, stat. cstr. šẹ̆̂môn $\overline{\bar{a}}$, stat. cstr. cstr.
 sü̈r(e) $\ddagger$. The numbers $11-19$ are formed by prefixing
 dicated, besides אی אַחָ 'ahì
 'aštê' ‘eṣrê'. ${ }^{1}$ For 12 the forms
 šĕnê ‘āṣār, fem. . precedes the masculines in the form ' $\bar{a} s ̣ \bar{a} r$, it precedes feminines in the form "eşrê. The other numerals up to nineteen follow the same analogy. The tens are indicated by the plural of the units, except 20 , for which the plural of 10 is employed. In this case the monosyllabic stems form a regular, not a dissyllabic plural. Hence 20

 S0 80 בְּ cstr. 300 תix תink

 nifies unus is the same as the Assyrian numeral istin unus, and is of Accadic origin; comp. Friedrich Delitzsch in "Smith's Chaldäische Genesis", Leipzig 1876, S. 277-280.


§. 109. The ordinals (except ケixin hisồn primus
 affix $\hat{\imath}$ as follows:


 feminine forms usually end in $-\imath \approx \approx$, more rarely in -iyyáa, and indicate a part, e. g. ת. hatmišǒis quinta pars, which can also be expressed through 家 hām(e)̌̌. The dual of the feminine gives the numeral the signification of times, or fold, e. g. septies.

## 3. CONJUGATION.

§. 110. The perfect of the simple form (qal), as has been already remarked, has arisen from the theme qatala, of which the intransitive forms are qatila and qutula. The feminine and the plural of the third person are formed by means of the same affixes as in the noun, while the formation of the second and first person is accomplished through the annexation of the corresponding personal pronouns, with the elision of the preceding final vowel of the stem. Thus we have 3. sing. masc. paup qütćl interfecit $=$ qutala,

 $=$ qatala-t. This form even in primitive Semitic had lost the vowel of the feminine affix, and ended in the consonant $t$; compare with suffixes látt $\hat{\imath}=$ qatalat-h $\hat{u}$. The 3. plur. has no distinction of
gender $\mathfrak{b u p} p_{1}$ qutěl $\hat{u}=q a t a l-\hat{u}=q u a t a l[a]-u-u$, very rarely with the status-affix $n$, which has arisen out of


 $t a l-t \hat{l}{ }^{1}$, which however always appears before suffixes,

 qataltun. All these endings are certainly nothing else than the corresponding personal pronoun. Before suffixes the plural ending of the second person has maintained itself in the more ancient form -t $\hat{\imath}$ (without the status-affix, but with the long vowel which has resulted
 $q \stackrel{t}{t}+a l t \hat{c}^{\prime}-n \hat{\imath}=q a t a l-t-u-u-n \hat{\imath}$. The first person has $q \bar{a} \dot{a} \dot{l} t \hat{\imath}=q a t a l-t \hat{\imath}$ (which has probably arisen from $q a-$
 of the intransitive, as almost always has in the originally closed syllables a instead of $i$, and hence differs from büp qātál only in the pause of the 3 . fem. and 3 . plur., where according to $\S .21$ the penult is heightened. Comp. .מָּ $k \boldsymbol{Z}$ ßĕס̆ $\hat{u}$, but in pausa qätálû. - The other intransitive form however with
 this vowel, e. g. 1. sing.
 $q$ àtờnû.
§. 111. In order to connect the perfect with a preceding future or imperative, and to give it an

1*Whenever this form occurs in the text, it is rejected by
 יָּשְ
analogous signification, $r \cdot \check{\varrho}$ is transferred to the final syllable. This change of accent however effects no other vocal alteration than that which is indispensably necessary (§. 46), namely that the now toneless syllable should retain the originally short instead of the heightened vowel, e. g. קָּדְ qätónta parvus eras, the accent does not take place in pausa, according to §. 21 , nor, according to §. 18, when the following word with which it is closely connected begins with an accented syllable.
§. 112. The fundamental form of the constr. infinitive, the imperative and future in the regular transitive verb is qutla (transposed qtula), but in the intransitives it is qatla (transposed qtala). The form qitla is only confined to some irregular stems. Thus arises the infini-
 has established itself here so firmly, that it even remains in cases where it could be dispensed with e. g.
 for it to enter after a prefixed $l$, or before gutturals $l a^{3}$, which already at an early period formed with the in-

 after the first consonant, as is the case before affixes with an initial vowel, a half vowel is inserted after the second consonant, because it had become customary

[^17]to regard the form as dissyllabic; comp. fem. קרקרבּד qor(ĕ()) 及áa appropinquare $=$ qurbata, with suffixes ibut $q o t(\hat{\varrho}) l l^{\prime}=q u t l a-h \hat{u}$. The form with $a$ instead of ' $u$ is very rare even in the intransitive verb. But when it occurs $a$, according to rocal laws, can become $i$ or $e$. E. g.


§. 113. The imperative, which even in primitive Semitic had lost its final vowel, is likewise bip $q(\stackrel{\circ}{\circ}) t \bar{o} l$ $=q t u l=q u t l$, although the Hebrew forms with suffixes presuppose a final vowel $i=u$, as in the future. The intransitives regularly have $a$ as a stem-vowel, e. g. כְּבַּ $k(\stackrel{\circ}{\partial}) \beta a \dot{\delta}=k b a d, k a b d$. The feminine is formed by adding the ending $\hat{\imath}^{N}$ (§. 114), the masc. plur. and fem. plural by adding respectively $\mathrm{m} . \hat{u}^{\prime \prime}(\S .110)$ and $\mathrm{f} . n \bar{a}(\S .114)$. The original position of the vowel in quil remains before the endings of which the initial sound is a full vowel, but a superfluous half rowel is inserted after the second consonant and the $u$ is generally attenuated to $i$. It is rarely retained as o in such forms $\operatorname{mol}(\underset{e}{6}) x \hat{u}$ regnate $=$ mulk- $\hat{u}$. Thus arise the 2. fem. . $q$. $q$ ? $q u t-\hat{\imath}, 2$, plur. masc. . $q$. $q i t\left(\frac{e}{(e)}\right) l \hat{u}=q u t l-\hat{u}, ~ 2$. plur. fem.

§. 114. The future is formed by subjoining the affixes of the casus, status and genus to the monosyllabic stem, and by prefixing the personal pronouns, among which is the fem. $t a$. The theme appears either without an ending, i. e. as an accusative, in the form qtula, or with the nominative ending as $q t u l-u$, or with the indefinite affix as qtula-m, qutula-n, or finally with the elision of the final vowel as $q t u l$. The fundamental
form of the jussive and of the future with vav consecutivum is qtul, that of the cohortative, sometimes also before suffixes, is qtulan. The forms qtula and $q t u l-u$, since they lose their final rowel according to Hebrew vocal laws, can no longer be discriminated from each other. Hence only this is certain, that before almost all suffixes the form qtulu appears, although with the modification of its $u$ to $i$. The 3. sing. masc. yiqtot $l=y a-q t u l-u$ has certainly arisen by prefixing the pronominal root of the third person $y a=r a$, likewise the 3. sing. fem. \}仑ค. tiqtōl $=$ taqtul- $u$ by prefixing the feminine $t a$, which in this case may not be suffixed, as there would then be no discrimination between the future and perfect. The
 plural, as in the noun and the perfect, through the twofold repetition of the nominative affixes, to which also the indefinite affix $n=m$ is sometimes subjoined, comp. . 3. plur. fem. . mutilated, since it was originally $t a-q t u l-\hat{a}-n a=t a-$ $q t u l a-[t] a-[t] a-m a$. This form may perhaps still be presupposed from which frequently occurs in the Pentateuch. ${ }^{1}$ Since the gender is here already indicated in the ending the feminine prefix $t a$ is to be regarded only
 $n a$ also occurs a few times (but always in Aramaic and Arabic). - The second person prefixes the pronominal root $t a$ in crery case to the stem, to which it subjoins in the mase. and fem. plur. the same endings, as in the third

## ${ }^{1}$ The Aramaic furnishes the proof of this. One only needs

 to compare the Chaldaic plur. בַּלְּ malkian, whoso ending has the same sound, and remember what is said in $\S .93 \mathrm{Rem}$. in regard to the origin of the latter form.person; on the other hand it subjoins to the fem. sing. $\hat{\imath}$ as affix of the gender (perhaps $=h \hat{\imath}$ ); thus arise

 the indefinite affix tiqtẹlin $=t a-q t u l-\hat{\imath}-m a$, 2. plur. masc. . Aq .
 tōln $\bar{a}=t a-q t u l-n a$. - The first person of the sing. and plur. are respectively indicated by prefixing the abbreviated pronominal stems ' $a$ and $n a$ to the root, e. g.
 $n i q t o ̄ l=n a-q t u l-u$. - The intransitives have the vowel $a$ in the future, comp. יִּ יָּ yiqtán $=y a-q t a n-u$.
§. 115. The cohortative scarcely ever occurs except in the first person ${ }^{1}$, hence ${ }^{\text {a }}$ la-m agedum interficiam! $\quad$ הלָּup interficiamus! It is also found in the imperative, e. g.
 $=$ sikba-m, sakba-m. - The jussive, is found almost exclusively in the second and third person, and is based upon the form yaqtul without a final vowel. Hence in the qal of the regular verb, after the falling away of all the final vowels in Hebrew, it can no longer be externally distinguished from the ordinary form. This is also the fundamental form of the futurum consecuticum or the historical mode, which is joined by $v a$ and the doubling of the following consonant to the preceding narrative. The accent should then be drawn back upon the penult. This however does not take place when the penult is a closed syllable,
${ }^{1}$ * The cohortative of the 3 . person only occurs in Ps. xx, 4, Job. xi, 17, Jes. v, 19.
hence in the qal of the entire regular verb, c. g.
 interfeci $=v a^{\prime} a-q t u l$.
§. 116. The infinitive absol. and the active participle have arisen from the dissyllabic form. The infin. absol. is biup quatồl $=q a t a \hat{a} l a$, and the active participle qal bout potél $=q a ̂ t i l a$, which in the feminine has either

 teg $l^{\prime} \hat{l}^{\prime} m=q u t t i l-\hat{i} m$. The active participle of the intransitives has just the same form as their perfect. Comp.
 gura. - The only remnant of the passive in the qal is the participle $q$ quatûl occisus = qaṭ̂la.
§. 117. Through the prefixing of $n a$ to the stem qtala, or hin, when the first radical consonant retains its vowel, the nip'al conjugation arises, which has a reflexive, reciprocal and passive signification. The
 just as in the qal. The participle niqtâle fem.
 $l(e) \ddagger=n a-q t a l-t a$, is specially indicated only by the heightening of the radical vowel through which the nominal forms are usually discriminated from the purely verbal. The fundamental form of the infinitive, imperative and future of the nip'al must prefix hin, since it retains both radical vowels. Thus arise the
 $q \bar{a} t \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{c} h \hat{u}^{\prime}=$ hin-qutil- $\hat{u}$, the infinitive cstr. (which often serves for the absol.) Büp hiqqütél =hin-qutila, the infin. abs. biup nevertheless the form biup ? niqtồ $l=$ naqtâla occurs, which has arisen as above by prefixing $n a$. Before
the prefixes of the future according to $\S .35$ the aspirate is elided. Thus we have the future $=y \stackrel{e}{o}-h i n-q \bar{a} t \bar{e} l=y u-h i n-q a t i l u$, the inflection of which is entirely analogous to that of the future qal (also

 tiqqātélna $=$ tu-linn-qatil-na. In pausa the future is
 back through the prefixing of vav consecutivum, it is כ in the niopal. ${ }^{1}$
§. 118. The $p i^{i e} \bar{e} l$ which has been formed by doubling the second radical consonant, and which has an intensive, causative or denominative signification, has in the perfect quּ qưt quél $=$ qittila, although almost as frequently bęer qittál $=$ qittala. The first formation always appears where the second syllable is open (e. g.


 lavit heighten a to Segol. ${ }^{2}$ - The imperative has
 -

 qattilu, 2. and 3. plur. fem. --

[^18]

§. 119. The pural, as passive of the pirel has in the perfect the infin. constr. ${ }^{1}$ ? quttál $=$ quttala, in the infin. absol. bitep quttôl = quttâla, in the future
 quttál $=$ muquttala. - The reflexive conjugation hispa" $\bar{e} l$ arises through the prefixing of hit to the stem
 qattél $=$ hit-qattila (also, as in the pi"ell, לwenn hijquttail), future tilu, participle hit-quttila. If the first radical consonant is a sibilant, transposition takes place ( $(.25)$ ), if it is a dental, assimilation (§. 26, 3). ${ }^{2}$ - Of a passive of this reflexive (hospaal) there are only isolated remnants, e. g. איֵּ huttammáa contaminari $=$ hut-tamma'a. The different forms which are analogous to the pirèl, as the pốèl, pốal, hiŋpô'ēl, pálèl, pa'lal, hiłpactēl, pilpèl etc., will be mentioned under the irregular verbs.
§. 120. The cansative conjugation hiopil is formed by means of the prefix $h a$ (in the perfect $h i$ ) and in many cases by the insertion of $\hat{\imath}$ as stem-rowel (§. 47, rem.), which is always accented. Thus arise the perfect hiq-tîl = ha-qtilla, ha-qtala, fem. . $q t i^{\circ}-l a-t$, but since according to $\S .38$ originally closed syllables could have no long vowel, the 2 . sing. remains
${ }^{1}$ *This form is purely imaginary since the only infin. pural of a strong verb is בia Gen. xl, 15.

2 * Both transposition and assimilation occur in



 absol. ha-qtîlu, jussive according to §. 38 ַיְ yaqtèl $=$ yu-ha-qtil, likewise nanp
 $q t i l-n a$, participle $\quad$ ַaqtị $q$ tilla ${ }^{1}$, fem. generally nלֶup qtal-ta.
§. 121. The hoopal passive of the hiopil is in the perfect, imperative and infin. cstr. ל-p. hoqtál or
 tél = hu-qtila ${ }^{2}$, fut. $y_{c}^{c}-$-huqtál $=y u-h u-q t a l u$, participle, with the usual nominal heightening, commonly בָּקְקָּל muqtà $m o q t a t a l=m u-l u-q t a l a$.
§. 122. The quadriliterals are wont to be conjugated after the analogy of the picèel, e. g. . vit $=$ kirsima, future $\mathbf{\square}$

 follows the analogy of the hiph'il. The few cases in which a $t a$ is prefixed to the verbal stem, as tirgailtî ambulare feci $=t a-r g a l-t \hat{\imath}$ are perhaps also to be regarded as denominative quadriliterals. ${ }^{3}$

1 *The Arabic participle of the hip'il (fourth form) likewise has short $i$ as well as the future muqtil, yuqtilu.
${ }^{2}$ *An example of the constr. infin. Hoph of a strong verb is not to be found, and the only instance of an infin. absol. is לมֵּרָּ Ez. xvi, 4.

3 *The causative form seems to be a collateral of the

§. 123. The so-called irregularities in conjugation are merely occasioned by the vocal laws of the primitive Semitic and Hebrew. The verbs primae gutturalis must according to $\S .54$ receive a compound half vowel instead of the simple one in the imperative and infinitive of the qal. This is commonly $\breve{c}$, although after Alep (as in the roots esse, זוי civere) it is e e comp.
 volatilized half vowel, which has arisen from original $a$ in the 2. plur. perf. of course always becomes $\breve{a}$,
 future qal the original $a$ of the prefix remains according to $\S .53$, unless $a$ follows in the next syllable. In such a case, and before Alep, $i$ entered for the sake of dissimilarity in the vowels, but on account of the guttural returned again to $e$. The $i$ remains unchanged only in יִיְּיָ yihyä̀ erit $=y i-h y a[y u]$ and
 sapiet $=y i-$ hkamu, ya-hkamu. In both cases a half vowel which always follows the analogy of the preceding vowel (§. 55), is very often inserted after the guttural to facilitate the pronunciation. Comp. time ya'(ă)móठ = yámu-du, hazaqu,,$\underset{\sim}{\cdots}$ vowel, which has thus arisen, when followed by another half vowel in the next syllable, must become a full short vowel (§. 56), hence 'mud- $\hat{u}$, ${ }^{\text {a }}$ : and hióill the prefixes have $a$ and $e$ respectively, where in the regular verb they have $a$ or $i$; here also the insertion of an auxiliary sound is allowable after the guttural. Comp.
 '(o) mèdî', , hchisitr = hi-hîira,
 $=y u-h a-$-mîdu, ho甲̣al Where the first radical consonant should be doubled in the nipóal the law mentioned in $\S .28$ of course
 hin-'amira. - The half vowel $\breve{e}$ and the preceding $e$, when the tone is thrown forward, are easily simplified to $\breve{a}$, relatively $a$, according to $\S$. 57 , e. g. רธำ ye-'(ĕ)sór ligabit $=$ yi-'sura, 3. plur. . sęr $\hat{u}^{\prime}$, with suff. mádtā $=h i-m a d-t a$, with vav consecutivum $h a^{\circ}(a ̆) m a \delta t a ́ a$.
§. 124. Five verbs primae Alẹ elide their first consonant in the future qal and in this way receive $\hat{o}=\hat{a}$. As the second vowel they have $\bar{e}(=i)$, with the exception of אמב and stems tertiae $y$ and אמור as tertiae gutturalis, before unitive accents $a$, when the accent is drawn back $a$ or $e$. They are perire, אמ אכל אבי vellere, dicere, coquere. Comp.

 of the first radical consonant is not expressed, even in writing, comp. Mén 'ômár. The form lêmô'r dicendo $=l_{e}-^{\prime}(\bar{e}) m \bar{o} r$ is worthy of notice. Some verbs form their future in two ways, e. g. time ye'(e) hōzapprehendet and
§. 125. The verbs mediae gutturalis receive a compound half vowel $\breve{a}$ after the gutturals instead of a


1 *In the short verses, which in the book of Job introduce his speeches and those of his three friends, the form is rayyômar with $a$ notwithstanding the drawing back of the tone.
perative and future qal they retain according to $\S .53$

 finitive almost always has the vowel $u$ ，comp．ت š（ĕ））hōt．In the picel，pu＂al and hizpa＂ēl the rowel before $r$ is always，before＇commonly，before＇$h \underset{\sim}{h}$ sarcely ever heightened to compensate for the omission of the doubling．Comp． $7=$ Berét benedixit $=$ birrika，

 kēhú increpuit $=$ kihhaya．iyy？
§．126．The verbs tertiae gutturalis receive an auxiliary vowel $a(\S .53)$ between an originally long
 חַּלְּ occurs after the merely heightened $\bar{o}$ of the infin．cstr． qal，e．g． the original $a$ has commonly been retained before the gutturals，instead of the other short rowels．This is always the case in the imperative and future qal．In the niọal，piceel and hipill it occurs so interchangeably with $\bar{e}$（originally $i$ ）that $\bar{e}$ commonly stands in the
 together with

 The 2．fem．perf．inserts an auxiliary rowel a bc－ tween the final consonants（ $\S .55$ ，rem．）comp． säláḷ（a）t．
§．127．If the third radical consonant is an Alep， it loses its consonantal character at the end of a syl－

[^19] Ps．li，15；ت゙ごご Lev．xi， 7.
lable（§．36），which becomes open and must con－ sequently be heightened．The heightened rowel which has thus arisen is unchangeable，e．g．3．sing．perf． Nয়ּ




 picel always has $i$（Hebr． $\bar{e}$ ）as its second vowel（prob－ ably for the sake of dissimilation）e．g．Nẹt timme $=$ timmi＇a，
§．128．The verbs primae nun assimilate their $n$ to a following consonant except when this is a gut－ tural．Comp．这．yippôl $=y i-n p \bar{l} l$ ，苍？yiggás $=y i-$
 huggás＝hu－ngaš．The infin．cstr．and the imperative qal commonly reject the $n$ ，it then has the vowel $a$ ． The infin．commonly appears with the feminine ending

 is treated in the same way，fut．ne：yiqqaih＝yi－lqah，
 The root irs has in the 2．perf．Fixp（once 2 Sam．
 $y$ i－ntin，imp．滑 tēn $=n t i n$, infin． $\operatorname{son} t \bar{e} \cong=t i t t=t i n-t$ $=n t i n-t$ ．
§．129．The irregularities of the verbs mediae ge－ minatae are occasioned by the tendency of the lan－ guage to unite two identical consonants in a double consonant．While therefore forms with one vowel place it so that the identical consonants may not be separated by it（hence $s a b b$, sibb，subb，not $s b a b, s b i b$ ，
sbub), the forms with two rowels lose the second, in order that the identical consonants may fall together (hence $s a b b$ instead of $s a b a b$ ). Thus arise 3 . sing. perf. בכ $s a \beta=s a b b a$, sababa, fem. $s a \dot{a} b b \bar{a}=s a b a b a-t$, plur. $\left.b \hat{u}^{\prime}\right)=s a b a b-\hat{u}$. An $\hat{o}$ (always accented except in the 2. plur.) is inserted before endings beginning with a consonant, which has probably arisen through the lengthening of the $a$ after its transposition e. g. n̦iֹפ $\delta a b b \hat{o}^{\prime} \ddagger \bar{a}=$
 imper., infin. and future the primitive position of the vowel after the first consonant remains, hence infin. cstr.

 future. Nevertheless besides the form which has arisen in this way in the future יָּ yāsóß $=y a-s u b b$, , $t \bar{a}-$-sòbbî $=t a-s u b b-\hat{\imath}, 2$. and 3. plur. fem. तנְ $b$ ä̃n $\bar{a}$, which is probably formed after the analogy of the verbs tertiae $v, y$, with vav consecutivum בכָָּּ vayyaiso $=y a-s u b b$, there is a second form, in which the rowel originally stood after the second consonant, comp. יכֹ yissô $=y a-s b u b u$, , plur. fem. . sitives here also have $a$ in the infinitive, imperative and future, before which for the sake of dissimilation the prefix ya becomes $y i$, as in the regular verb. Comp. וַ mar $=$ marr, fut. to the second formation infin. absol. בסּ sôßè $\beta$ and oun sūpû́ $\beta$ are regular.
§. 130. In the nipoal the identical consonants have been united throughout; the prefix na retains its orig-
 fem. .


 $=y u-h i n-s a b b u, 2$ ．fem．sing． plur． become so similar to the regular 3．perf．qal，that sometimes by an erroneous analogy they receive $i$ or $u$ instead of $a$ as the second vowel，comp．perf．

 perative and future hare probably arisen after the analogy of the stems mediae rar．In the infinitive they could be the characteristic formation of the infin．absol． Comp．ズヨล！hibbôz＝hin－bâzz．
§．131．The hiopil of the verbs mediae geminatae ac－ cording to $\S .38$ never has an $\hat{\imath}$ ，but commonly $\bar{e}$ ，some－




 2．fem．• sibbä́na，the participle prefixes singularly enough the vowel $i$ ，מֵּ
 geable $\hat{\imath}$ perhaps after the analogy of the primae var．
§．132．These verbs seldom form a piee el and its related conjugations，but most commonly a pôēel，its passive pôial and reflexive hijpôel，of which the $\hat{o}$ $=\hat{a}$ is probably to be regarded as a compensative lengthening for the doubling which has fallen out， thus avoiding the triple repetition of the same con－ sonant．Compare ニュֵּ๐ sôpéß $=$ sâbliba $=$ sabbiba，passive
 sâbiba. - Sometimes also the doubling of the entire root appears in its primitive monosyllabic form (pilpēl,


§. 133 . The verbs primae $v$ are divided into three classes. a) Some have $a$ in the future and imperative, otherwise however they are influenced only by the universal vocal laws. Hence they have the perfect

 nị̣́al
 sỉß, with vav consecutivum =
 , can either remain or become $y$. b) Others which have the vowel $i$ in the infinitive, imperative and future, reject the $v$ before the second consonant in these forms,
 fut. $2 .$.
 fem. - הָּּ fominine ending, comp. $\because=-\bar{e}(a)^{r}$ scire $=[v] d i a$, com-
 In like manner an imperative is formed from
 †$\geqslant \mathrm{i}$ - hôlî̀ $\chi$. - In the remaining conjugations there is no discrimination between the second and first classes. c) A few verbs assimilate their $v$ to the succeeding consonant, and so exactly follow the analogy of the verbs primae nun, c. g. nঙ্ָּ yūçís combussit $=r a-$
 li-rita. Sometimes this formation occurs along with he other two.
§．134．The few rerbs primae yod：こニッ bonum esse， ジン ululare， rectum esse，are only distinguished from the primae $v$ of the first formation in this that they have $\hat{e}=a-y$ instead of $\hat{o}=a-v$ in the hiọ＇il，e．g． vit $=$ ha－ylila．The future qal，as－ has with rav consecutivum raviיִ rayyig ger．
§．135．The verbs mediae $v$ have in the perfect

 $q a ̂ m-t a(\S .38)=q a[r \cdot] a m-t a$ etc．The intransitive form

 गָּ perfect．The infin．absol．has $\mathrm{a}_{\mathrm{p}} \mathrm{q} \hat{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{m}=q \mathrm{a} m=q a$－ ［v］âma，the infin．constr．קqûm＝qurma，in like manner the imperative，in the fem．plur．nap qóme $=q u m-n a(\S .38)$ ．The fut．is $\Sigma \nabla_{\Gamma} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ yaquím＝yaquumu， 2．fem．יָּקָ
 mä̈n $\bar{a}$（§． 129 note）．The apocopated future form，which even in the primitive Semitic had no final vowel，was compelled to shorten its $\hat{u}, \S .38$ ，hence $-\operatorname{rp}_{r_{i}} y \bar{a} q o m$ ，with the accent upon the following word，and $a_{p_{T}}^{P-1}$ rayy $\bar{a}-$ $q o m=y a-q u m=y a-q \hat{u} m$ ．In an accented syllable the $u$ which has thus arisen must of course be heightened， hence $\stackrel{\Gamma}{\Gamma}$ ？$y$ ăqóm $=y a-q u m$ ．－The intransitives have $a$ in the infinitive，imperative and future，e．g．

 こipə্ָ nāqốm $=$ naqâma $=n a-q u a m a$ ，infin．and imper．




2．fem．יִּ
 with the prefix lii instead of lla，as in the verbs me－ diae geminatae，hop．上ーּ huquam after the analogy of the verbs primae $v$ ．In the perfect of the niopal and hiộl an $\hat{o}$ occurs before the endings beginning with a consonant in the same manner as in the med．gemin．，

 in which $v v$ almost always becomes $y y$ ，the conjugations paclēl，paclal and hi玉paclēl most commonly occur，e．g．
 mama，reflexive aŋitan hiaqômém＝hit－qarmima．Some－ times also the pilpël stands for the picel，e．g．כִּ kilkéll $=$ kil－kila．
§．136．The verbs mediae $y$ only differ in the qal from the mediae $r$ ．Together with the perfect i亏ָ ban $=b a[y] a n c e$ a form $\mathfrak{T}$ そin，2．sing．ñּ occurs．In the infin．and imp．the forms bin $_{\text {in }}=$ biyn occur，in the fut． secuticum $y a-b i ̂ n=y a-b y i n$, comp．§． $3 \delta$.
§．137．In Hebrew the verbs tertiae rav have be－ come tertiae yod throughout，with the single exception of the 1．person sing．perf． the root $\dot{\bullet} \cdot \dot{*}$ ．After the rejection of the rowel con－ sonant and the final rowel of the qal perfect the pre－
 ［ya］，fom．originally risa gūkiz，which form has scarcely been retained except before suffixes，$=$ galat $=$ galait $=$ galu $[y] a-t$ ，which is otherwise almost always ex－ panded after the false analogy of the regular verb to

 finitive and future the rowel $a$ is the only one which occurs after the 2. radical vowel; comp. the imper. -iz: g(ĕ) lê
 - יָּ 2. fem. . $t i \gamma l i{ }^{\prime}=$ tagla $[y] i$, 2. and 3. fem. plur.

 rarely like $\because, .$. forms even in primitive Semitic had lost the third consonant and the final rowel, so that according to the Hebrew law of final sound the rowel before the third consonant must fall away. The construct infinitive generally has a feminine ending, as niv: $g\left(\frac{b}{0}\right) l o ̂ ̃=g l a ̂ t=g l a-$ [y]a-t. Its masculine form occurs here exceptionally with $\hat{o}=\hat{a}$, which is othermise only usual in the infin. absol., comp. $-\infty \times r\binom{\breve{c}}{0} \hat{o}=r^{\prime} \hat{a}[y a]$. The infinitive absolute is


§. 13S. The same rowel changes take place in the nióal as in the qal, the formation with Chere orn


 [y]a-t, infin. absol. rian higgālét or niyló'. The other conjugations also follow the analogy of the qal in their formation, except that the pu"al and hoopal always, the piee el, hispaceē and hiọ'il sometimes retain the $\hat{e}$ in the perfect before endings which begin with a consonant. The hip'ill has retained the original radical vowel a throughout in the sccond syllable instead of $\hat{\imath}$, hence the perfect - דיגְ hipláa = ha-gla[yu], imperative - -म- haүlê $=$ ha-glay, apocopated infinitive תiּxin haylöa = ha-gla[y]a-t, infin. absol. rixio
 $y \ddot{a} \gamma(e) l$. In the pi"el the infinitives are niba gallós $=$ galla[y]a-t, infin. absol. rbs gallê, rarely ris gallô', imperative retalle gall gallay, apocopated gal =
 yĕ้̌al $=$ yu-gal[la].
§. 139. The same suffixes are appended to the verb as to the noun, except that the suffix of the first person is not $\hat{\imath}$ but $n \hat{\imath}$. The old final vowels are of course retained before the suffixes. In the perfect a remains before $-n \hat{\imath}$, is volatilized to $\stackrel{\varrho}{\varrho}$ before $-\chi^{\frac{1}{a}}$, -xém, - xén, in all other cases it is heightened to $\bar{a}$. In the future and imperative the $i$, Hebrew $\bar{e}$, which has arisen from $u$, is volatilized before - xáa, -xém, -xén to $\stackrel{\varrho}{\check{c}}$, before $-h \bar{u},-h$, it is exceptionally $\overline{\ddot{ }}, \bar{a}=a$. In the perfect the 3 . fem. singular appears before the suffixes in its original form qatala-t, the 2. fem. sing. as qa-tal-tî, the 2. masc. fem. plural as qatal-tî. In the future tiqtẹl $\hat{0}$ t stands before the suffixes instead of tiqtólna . In the imperative the suffixes are of course appended to the form which has the vowel after the first consonant. The same is the case in the infinitive, except sometimes before $-k \bar{u}$, -kem and $-k i{ }^{\prime} n$. They can be appended to the infinitive in the same way as to the noun. The so-called connecting rowel receires the accent, and the vowel changes correspond exactly to the universal rocal laws; except that in the future and pirēl, according to §. 43 b , the pretonic syllable is volatilized, and that a before éx $x^{\frac{1}{c}}$ is heightened contrary to the rule. Thus arise from qatecil the forms with suf-




 fecit nos = qatala-n̂, ,
 fecit eos = qatala-[hu]m, fem. 家 inine appends the suffixes directly to the radical form.


 before $m, n, k$, and a half vowel after a false analogy before kī, kém, kén, which however has no more power to change the relations of the rowels, hence anci

 tāla ${ }^{\circ}(e)$ ) yén. The 2. masc. sing. unites the suffixes $n \hat{\imath}, h \hat{u}$, $h, n \hat{u}, n, n$ with qatalta (which of course in Hebrew becomes qĕtaltáa-). - The contracted form ins:ūp qętaltó
 form 2. fem. sing. and the 1. sing. append the suffixes $n \hat{\imath}$, $\chi \bar{\alpha}, \chi, r$, hâ, nû, خém, خén, $m, n$ to qataltî (Hebrew qét altî-), the 3., 2. and 1. plural append the same suffixes, except $h \hat{u}$ instead of $v$, to the forms qatal $\hat{u}$ (Hebrew qĕtāl $\hat{u}^{\prime}-$ ), qaṭaltû (Hebrew qětaltû́'-) and qaṭalnû (Hebrew qĕtaln $\hat{u}^{\prime}-$ ). The following forms occur in the

 t(ĕ) lém, plural
 -הּל:
 As concerns the plural, the suffixes are of course appended directly to yiqtĕllúc. Instead of tiqtóolnā the form tiqtẹ̆l $\hat{\imath \prime}$ always appears before suffixes. The pi"ēl has

otherwise it receives the suffixes in just the same way as the qal.
§. 140. In the future the suffixes can also be appended to a future form, which instead of the nomnative ending $i=u$ had the indefinite accusative ending $a n=a m$, Hebrew $\ddot{\ddot{a}}$. For in the verb the indefinite form can remain before the suffixes, since the verbal suffixes are accusative, while the nominal suffixes, as genitive, must always have the noun before them in the definite form of the status constructus. In this way have arisen the forms ? Pf?

 lä̀nnû $=$ ya-qtulan-nर्u. ${ }^{2}$
§. 141. In the verbs medias geminatae the doubling, which has fallen away at the end of the word, of course
 šoddêe $-m=y a-s ̌ u d d i-m=y a-s ̌ u d d u-m$ from $=y a-$-sudd. The verbs tertial $v, y$, as in nouns, lose their vowel endings before all suffixes, compare


## 4. INFLECTION OF PARTICLES.

§. 142. Adverbs, which were originally indicated by the accusative, are now only in a few cases reconnizable as such, where the accusative ending, as $\overline{\text { u}}$,

1 *Of this form there are only two examples Jer. xix, 19. 1, 41.
2 * Assimilation however does not occur in the plural, unless it be in the first person which is doubtful. See Böttcher's "Ausführl. Lchrbuch", B. II, S. 35.


 lay(i)l, ઘir yôm. - The Hebrew has developed a later adverbial formation from the fem. of the forms in $\hat{\imath}$ $=$ iyya, comp. to indicate languages, as
§. 143. The particles, which are more frequently used, have been very much shortened, but can almost all still be proved to be nouns from originally triliteral roots. - The particles maqqep is not', ri*' 'ôo adfuc and stat. cstr. "אֵ ' $\hat{e}$, like the verbs, take the suffixes in the accusative, whence the $n$ of the indefinite form, which has arisen from $m$, comp. §. 140, can remain. Com-




 same way

§. 144. Sereral prepositions always appear before suffixes in the plural form, thus Nㅡㄴ 'ahar post, comp. ワיָּ and בֵּ ben inter, of which latter however the suffixes can be appended to the singular or feminine plural,
 With these must not be confounded the abbreviated


are preferred in poetry, and which contrary to the general rule, §. 106, always retain their original final radical ay before the suffixes and so externally have the appearance of the plural forms. Comp. 'לNe 'èláy, ָּ
 the regular 'imm- $\hat{\imath}$ " also the form and $=$ zeve, a ened instead of the usual volatilized final vowel. The prepositions rnan tak (a) $\ddagger$ and between, sometimes appear with verbal suffixes, in the former even with an inserted $n$, comp. §. 143. E. g.动 $\operatorname{silhtén~} \hat{\imath}$,

 is the same in form, were often, even in the older literature, confounded. The former however has sprung from the root se, hence it appears with suffixes as



§. 145. The much used prepositions $b \check{5}$, ľ̆, and the conjunction ke have undergone the greatest abbreviation. According to $\S .58$ before a syllable with a lalf vowel the original short vowel maintains itself in the form of $i$, so that $b i-y \check{\circ}$, li-yé according to $\S .33$ become bi, li. When it stands before a compound ševà, it takes on its rocal color. When li according to §. 112 enters a closed syllable, it appears before gutturals as la, before ailep as le. Of course nothing of this sort can happen to be and he\%. The heightened forms $b \bar{a}$, la, k $\bar{\pi}$ have sometimes been retained in the pretonic syllable especially before the demonstrative pronoun, la has often been retained even in other cases
in the pretonic syllable，but never when the word as the first member of stat．cstr．has a merely secondary accent． When $b a, k a$ ，la stand before the pronoun $m \bar{a}, m \bar{a}$ ，the $m$ is doubled，hence bam－mắ，kam－máa，lám－mā，cur？La before＇$h$＇generally becomes $\bar{\alpha}-m \dot{a}$ ，for the sake of en－ suring a distinct pronunciation，e．g．ה－ה．



 On the contrary $k ⿱ 丷 ⿱ ⿻ ⿴ 囗 丨 丷 日!~$ unites most of the suffixes in the form which is compounded with the indefinite pronoun




 not before suffixes．－The conjunction $r_{\check{C}}$ is often heightened before the accented syllable，in pausa，and between closely connected notions ${ }^{1}$ ，to $v \bar{a}$ ，before com－ pound šĕwa it takes on the color of the same，before half vowels as well as before labials it becomes $\hat{u}$ ，it blends with following yĕ to $v i$ ，before the futur．conversicum it becomes $r a$ with the doubling of the following con－ sonant，or $v \bar{a}$ as a recompense for the doubling．

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 §． 600 and as regards the influence of the separative or unitive accent Delitzsch＇s Commentary to Ps．1v， 10.

## V.

## S Y N TAX.

§. 146. Since the ancient case-endings have fallen away, the genitive relation is only externally recognizable through the vocal changes, which the governing word undergoes by reason of its close connection with the following word in the stat. constr. This relation is indicated in the masc. plur. by the falling away of the indefinite affix $m$. The word which stands in the stat. cstr. does not receive the article, because as such its form is already definite, hence the article is only placed before the governed word. Comp. F Five
 nouns with suffixes always have a definite signification.
§. 147. The adjective is placed after the noun
 haš-sôór hag-gādò̀l taurus magnus. - The comparative degree is expressed by itive and is prefixed to the word with which the comparison is made, c. g. 并בּדְְּ pin: dulcior melle.
§. 148. The accusative ending has heen retained only to a very limited extent in the accusative of the direction. Otherwise this case is only indicated in
nouns, which are rendered definite by the article, personal affixes or the stat. cstr., by placing -ss 'es, or when accented rx ' $\bar{e} \overline{\mathrm{~s}}$ before it, e. g. Eַּ haš-sāamiy(i)m coelos.
§. 149. The relative 'ŭšcr often simply indicates the relation which is then more exactly defined by a following suffix or adrerb, e. g. $\overline{\text { ¿ }} \boldsymbol{\sim}$ 'ŭšer zar'ô' $\hat{o} \hat{\prime}$, arbor in qua est semen ipsius. It can also fall away, particularly in the poetical style.
$\S .150$. As has already been remarked the masculine form of the numbers from 3-10 are construed with the feminine and vice rersa. One is treated as an ordinary adjective. The numerals from $2-10$ on the contrary stand before the object numbered in the stat. cstr. or absolutus. In later books, and more rarely, they are also placed after it. The tens, $20-90$ always stand in the stat. abs. either before or after the thing numbered; in the former case that which is numbered can be put in the singular. With numbers compounded of units and tens the object numbered is either placed after each numeral, according to the rules of each, or it is put after the tens in the singular, although in the later books it is also placed before the units in the plural. - There are no proper ordinal numbers for the numerals above ten. - Distributires are indicated by the doubling of the number.
§. 151. With reference to the use of the tenses it should be obserred, that the first tense, the perfect, expresses 1) the past and completed, eren when it extends to the present, 2) the certainty of an assurance, and 3) that which we express through the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive. The second tense,
the so-called future, indicates 1 ) the future, 2) the present especially as an expression of permanent conditions, 3) sometimes even the past, when it expresses like the Latin imperfect, a continuous action, 4) our present, and sometimes 5) imperfect subjunctive. Moreover it is placed ofter the particles iș ${ }^{\top} \bar{u} z$ tunc and $=\sim \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\eta}$ ta $\overline{\overline{-}}-$ $r(e) m$ nondum.
§. 152. If a chain of thonght has been begun in the future or imperative, it is continued in the perfect with the conjunction rec. and the moving forward of the accent, which then receires exactly the signification of the preceding future or imperative. On the other hand if a narrative begins with the perfect, it is continued in the apocopated form of the future with $v a$, and so that the following consonant is doubled, and the accent drawn back, if possible.
§. 153. Besides this case, the apocopated form of the future, the so-called jussive, scarcely ever occurs except in the 2 . and 3 . person to express a wish, a command or prohibition; the jussive is always used to express a prohibition, but never the imperative which can neither be comnected with si or bs. - The lengthened future form, cohortative, with final $\frac{a}{a}$ stands in the first person to indicate a request or an exhortation.
§. 154. The infinitive absolute is freely comnected with the finite verb from the same stem. It generally precedes to strengthen the idea contained in the verb; while it follows in order to express the contimance of the action. Otherwise the infin. absol. sometimes stands as an accusative, or for the finite rerb, but always in a verbal construction, hence never after prepositions or a stat. cstr. On the contrary the infinitive
cstr. can not only govern the accusative, as a verb, but also the genitive as a noun, hence it connects itself with verbal and nominal suffixes. The subject of the action rery often stands in the nominative after the infin. cstr. Through the prefixing of the prepositions bĕ, kĕ and lĕ before the infin. cstr. various subordinate sentences are formed.
§. 155. Interrogative sentences are expressed through $h \check{c}$, which has arisen from hal, before consonants with a half rowel $h a$, generally effecting the doubling of the following consonants, before gutturals ha, before gutturals with Qameç according to §. 29 h $\overline{\ddot{a}}$. Indirect questions are expressed through $\quad \leq x^{\prime} \mathrm{im}$, and disjunctive questions through $h \breve{a}$ in the first and ' $i m$ in the second member.

## EXERCISE IN PROSE READING.

Gen. i, $1-5$.









:
bên člôh húm vay-yaßctél kî tôp 'és hā-ôr 'èlôhîm Vay-yar





EXERCISE IN POETICAL READING.
Ps. ii.


?riq yehgî' $\hat{\imath}$-lĕ'ummí'm




#  <br>  <br> ： <br>  <br>  



yişháq b－as̆－sìm

làmô．yiľ ị̛＇ăд̀ônáy
：隹
bĕ－＇appố＇＇ēlểmô yĕdubbérr＇Ā
答

 malkí nūsiytî Va－＇üni永 qossit＇！hùr Çiyyồn＇al


$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 等 }
\end{aligned}
$$


 yè̀lì̀tĩ $\% \bar{a}$ ．hay－yôm＇ün $\hat{\imath}$ ：п
 Tin?Tッ:





tęnappẹ̆cém. yộ̂èr ki-zẹl









 'appô'. ki-mè at yip ip ir $k i$


THE REGULAR VERB.

| Perf. 3. m. qūt <br>  <br> 2. m. qùtèl-t̄̄u (p. qūt $\hat{c} l-t \bar{u})$ <br> 2. f. qūt $\bar{c} l-t$ (qutcil-ti), p. qüt $\bar{c} l-t$ <br>  <br> 3. pl. qūtęl- $\hat{u}^{\prime}$ (p. quàtàl $\bar{u}$ ) <br> 2. m. qét al-tém <br> 2. f. qढ̣̆tal-tén <br> 1. qụ̄̀àl-mu (p. qātáal-nì) | sātếm <br>  sülum-tū (p. šūlúm-tā) sálum-t $(\mathrm{p}$. sālām-t $)$ <br>  <br>  sẹllam-tém sẹlam-tén şālím-nu ( p . šālúm-nû) | qütón <br> qūtẹñ $(\mathrm{p} \cdot q \bar{a} t o ̂ n \bar{a})$ <br>  <br> qūtón-t <br> $q \bar{a} t o ̂ n-t \hat{\imath} \quad(v e ̆-q \bar{u} t o n-t \hat{\imath})$ <br>  <br> qĕton-tém <br> qšton-tén <br> qātón-n $\hat{u}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  <br> sil(gे) m-i <br> zil(e) $)$ - $\hat{u^{\prime}}$ <br>  | Does not occur. |
|  <br>  |  |  |


| Fut. 3. m. $y i-q t \bar{o} l$ <br> 3. f. ti-qtóol <br> 2. m. ti-qtotol ti-qtól-íl) <br> 2. f. ti-qtĕcl-î (ti-qtẹ̆l-în, p. <br> 1. ' $\mathrm{C}-q$ tóol <br> 3. pl.m. $y i-q t \stackrel{c}{c} l-\hat{u}^{\prime}(p . y i-q t o t o l-\hat{u})$ <br> 3. f. ti-qṭóol-nū (yi-qtóol-nā) <br> 2. m. ti-qtĕtut (p. ti-qtôl $l \hat{u})$ <br> 2. f. ti-qtôl-na <br> 1. vi-q!ôol | yi-šlám ( p, yi-şltct ) <br> ti-šlám <br> ti-ślám <br>  <br> 'e-šlám <br> yi-šlĕm- $\hat{\iota}$ ( $\mathrm{p} . y i-s ̌ l a ́ m-\hat{u}$ ) <br> ti-šlám-nā (p. ti-šláme-nā) <br> ti-šlẹ̆̆m- $\hat{u}$ ( p . ti-šlácm- <br> ti-šlám-nüu <br> ni-şlúm | $y i-q t i a n$ <br> ti-qtin <br> ti-qtin <br> $t i-q!e \check{e} n-\hat{\imath}^{\prime}$ <br> 'e-qtán <br> yi-qtẹ̆n $\hat{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ <br> ti-qtáu-ū̄ <br> $t i-q!e \check{0} n-\hat{u}^{\prime}$ <br> ti-qtán-n̄̄ <br> mi-qtán |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Fut. parag. <br> 1. sgo. 'e-qtềlá (p. 'e-qtôolā) <br> 1. pl. ni-qtệlá (p. ni-qtóola) |  |  |
|  | ş( | $q\left(\frac{\breve{e}}{}\right) t \bar{o} n$ |
| Infin. abs. qātô'l | ṧtlốm | $q \bar{a}+o^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ |
| P'art. act. quotél | sūlém | qūtón |
| Part. pass. quat $\iota^{\prime}$ l | šalciom | qāt $\hat{u}^{\prime} n$ |



Imper．parag．qatt！̣̆tu
（lì－quttcil） （p．hił－qattéc̄ā） his－qat！al－t－ his－qa！tál－t hi $\ddagger-q a t!(t i l-t \imath$ hiま－qat！ĕl－u hiさ－qa！tal－tém his－qa！tal－tén hiฟ－qa！tćl－n̂̂

| hiJ－qat！él <br> hiさ－qat！${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{l}-\hat{\imath}$ <br> hiま－qu！t！ $\mathrm{c} l-\hat{\mu}$ <br> his̃－qut！$c t l-n \overline{\text { ú }}$ |
| :---: |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |

Puceal．

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { qut! } \\
& \underset{T}{\text { phåำ }} \\
& \text { qut!ćl-tà }
\end{aligned}
$$

quttál－t̂̂
（npianb－d）ngionb
qut！altém
qu！！al－tén
qut！ál－n̂̂

| Fut．3．m．yš－qattectl <br> 3．f．tş－quttćl <br> 2．m．tẹ－quttél <br>  <br> 1．＇ŭ－quttćl <br> 3．pl．m．yč－qut！！čl－$\hat{u}^{\prime}$（p．ye－yat－ <br>  <br> 2．m．tĕ－quttẹlé <br> 2．f．tọ̆－qat！ $\bar{c} l-n \bar{u}$ <br> 1．nĕ－qut！él | yé－quttcil <br> tŏ－qut！ál <br> tŏ－qut！úl <br> tŏ－qut！！̣̆－li <br> ＇ä－qutțil <br>  <br> tĕ－quttul－na <br> tĕ－quttẹl－uí <br> tẹ̆－qutṭil－nā <br> nĕ－qut！tcil | $y$－ì－quttél <br> t－is－quttécl <br> $t$－ì－qattél <br> $t-i \Phi-q u t t c_{c} l-i^{v}$ <br> ＇－eさ－qattćl <br> $y$－iざ－qattect－ut <br> t－i＇s－qutt ${ }^{\text {él }} l-n \bar{u}$ <br> $t-i \ddagger-q u t!c!l-u^{\prime}$ <br> t－is－quttél $l-n \bar{u}$ <br> $n$－is－quattél |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Fut．parag． <br> 1．sg．＇ü－qutt ̣̣̆lé（p．＇＇ü－quttélē̄） <br>  |  |  |
| Infin．estr．quettél（quetticl） | quttáal | hì－quttél |
|  | $q u t!t o{ }^{\prime} l$ | hi̇－qutṭct |
| Partic．m̌̌－quttet | mö－quttcicl | $m-i s-q a t t c^{\prime} l$ |

## Hig ${ }^{\text {ill. }}$

 Perf. 3. m. lki-qtitl| Imper. 2. sg. ha-qtel. <br> 2. f. hu-qtı̃l- ${ }^{\prime}$ <br> 2. pl. m. ha-q! $\hat{\iota} l-\hat{\iota}$ <br> 2. pl.f. hu-qtél-mu | ho-qtáal | hiq-qātéel <br> hiq-qūt! ! l- $\imath$ <br> hiq-qāt!̣̆ $t-\hat{u}{ }^{\prime}$ <br> hiq-qūtềl-nū |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Imper. parag. ha-qtîtu | ho-qtẹlléa |  |


| Fut. 3. pl. $y-a-q t i^{\prime} l$ <br> 3. f. $\quad t-a-q t^{\prime} l$ <br> 2. m. $\quad t-a-q t \stackrel{1}{ }{ }^{\prime} l$ <br> 2.f. $\quad t-a-q t_{i}^{\prime \prime} l-\hat{\imath}$ <br> 1. $\quad$ - $a-q!i t l$ <br> 3. pl. m. $y-a-q t{ }^{n} l-\hat{u}$ <br> 3. f. $\quad t$-ct-qtél-na <br> 2.m. $\quad t-\alpha-q!\stackrel{\imath}{l} l-\hat{\imath}$ <br> 2. f. $t$-ct-qt.t $l-n \bar{u}$ <br> 1. $n-a-q!\hat{t} l$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Fut. parag. ' $\iota-q t \hat{\imath}{ }^{\prime} \bar{u}$ |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Fut. apocop. } y \text { - } \alpha-q t \frac{1}{e} l \\ & y-a-q!\hat{t}^{\prime} l-\hat{u} \end{aligned}$ |  | [vay]yiqqútel |
| Infin. Cstr. luct-qt $\hat{c}^{\prime} l$ | ho-qtál | Tiq-qútel |
| Infin. abs. ha-qtel | ho-qtel | liqq-qūtô'l (ni-qtôl , hiq-qūtèl) |
| Partic. $m-a-q!\stackrel{l}{l}$ |  | $n i-q!a t$ |

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vowel consonants: $r, y$ subject through permutation, vocalization and clision to many changes s. $31,32,33$; cases in which they retain their consonantal character §. 34.
yowelless cifaracter: of the Somitic letters s. 14.
vowels: Bickell's transcription §. 17; changes for the sake of dissimilarity §. 29; only three in primitive Semitic §. 37 ; shortening of a long vowel which was in an originally closed syllable §. 38; classification §. 39 ; when originally long they are unchangeable §. 40; cases where the short vowels remain unchanged $\S .41$, are heightened
§. 42, are volatilized §. 43; union of two half vowels §. 44; rules for vocal changes §. 47-49, before suffixes §. 105; auxiliary vowels §. 52; elision scarcely ever occurs except ot the end of a word §. 59.

Unitives: conjunctives or servants §. 19 and 20 note B.

## 3. HEBREW WORDS.

The numbers in this index refer to the sections. Hypothetical forms are indicated with a star.


107.

勺ジッグ 44． 112.
－ 144.
28 。
ジア 7 •
－
74 ำ．
52．
（usually בֵּ
ถiราว 44.
59.

ロコニングッ 41.

習 46．72． 107.
107.
46.

74.
67.

าวิะ 21． 69.
7 จี่ 21.
า 69 ．
－ 69.
－

12 34.
隄＊ 34.
徒＊ 34 ．
－ 34.

－ 32.137.
ージ，32．67． 137.
标寻 32.137.
－33． 137.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { กโ゙ว } 32.137 . \\
& \text { 33. 34. } 137 . \\
& \text { ープンダ33. 50. } 137 .
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { テア․․ } 32 .
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 2: } 74 . \\
& \text { ゴき } 74 \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 下ゴป } 128 . \\
& \text { ㅃㄼ 35. } 128 . \\
& \text { ภ } 35 . \\
& \text { คブㅜT } 42 . \\
& 42 . \\
& \text { ทํㅗ } 74 . \\
& \text { า } 74 . \\
& \text { คทำ } 43 \text {. } \\
& 43 . \\
& \text { 44. 44. } 97 .
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ลจุาวา } 105 . \\
& \text { 군 } 72 . \\
& 66 . \\
& \text { - } 32.40 . \\
& 69 . \\
& \text { ロT } 72 . \\
& \text { ジ2 } 32 . \\
& \text { - } 69 . \\
& \text { ージフ } 7 \text { 。 }
\end{aligned}
$$



$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - } 6.83 . \\
& 83 . \\
& \text { - } 82 . \\
& \text { - }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - } 82 . \\
& \text { 宊 } 7 . \\
& \text { この容 } 76 . \\
& \text { コニーำ 27. } 131 . \\
& \text { ニデㅜㄴ131. } \\
& \text { こご花 } 130 . \\
& \text { ファּジロー 27. } 131 .
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { なご尘 } 28 .
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ตฺTּ } 123 .
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 2. } 2 .{ }^{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ーッファ? } 75 . \\
& 122 . \\
& \text { - } 25 . \\
& \text { 126. } \\
& 75 . \\
& 75 . \\
& \text { - } 25 . \\
& \text { ว่วยำ } 132 . \\
& \text { シ프ํㅜ } 31 .
\end{aligned}
$$



フฺワクาก 31.
ำวำ！ำ 77 ．


```
        %ํา%๙ハ! 42.
```



7731.
勺อぶワ124.
ตรぶッ 124.
ำำ 30 .
ทางッ 38.
วมี่ 52.
บฐ9.ำ 21.
272มำ9 21.
าตリクา 27.
ตาา 33 .
ตาๆ 27.
าゴャッา 134.
がジティ 111.
7b: 21.
-12.9 21.
วบทั 45.
コจัワ 131 .
プーデ 53.
9ざッ 27.
こアッィッ21. 38. 46.
-Fワワ 21.
バプฯ 53.
コプา 52.
コフィฯ 52.
7ㄲ․․․ 30.



$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 2以゙! } 23 . \\
& \text { エボ } 83 . \\
& \text { ทกニา } 97 . \\
& \text {-i! } 83 . \\
& \text {-it } 83 . \\
& \text { ir } 83 . \\
& 83 . \\
& 34 . \\
& 52 . \\
& 100 . \\
& \text { シャา } 30 \text {. } \\
& \text { ジフ } 21 . \\
& \text { ッブ 21. } 52 . \\
& \text { 䏡年 42. 71. } 99 . \\
& \text { 佂: 71. } 99 . \\
& \text { หฟา } 97 \\
& \text { ใ2ำ } 97 . \\
& \text {-7゙5 } 23 . \\
& \text { ーi゙ 66. 95. } 106 . \\
& \text {-iti 95. } 101 . \\
& \text { - \%it } 101 . \\
& 77!17101 . \\
& \text { ภาําก } 101 . \\
& \text { 7! 7 } 101 . \\
& \text { 7! \% * } 101 . \\
& \text { जร } 101 . \\
& \text { 玉ッit } 101 . \\
& \text { y:im } 69 . \\
& \text { ープシ9ா } 70 . \\
& \text { ทฺッグ 41. } 100 \text {. } \\
& \text { ทiッity 41. } 100 . \\
& \text { ล心쿧 } 92 \text {. } \\
& \text { ㄲ } 34 . \\
& \text { ก } 31 \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$

```
        -}34
        ל뀨 70. 107.
        #}107
        93.
        93.
        % 87. 92.
```



```
        ロご 63. 96.
```



```
    96.
    96.
        96.
        *"
    96.
        \!ח% 21.43. 54.69.
            胙 21.69.
    70.
        =Ț 23. 95. 107.
```



```
    112.
        $108.
    108.
    ה\mp@code{゙ֶֶ药 92. }108.
        \square\mp@code{#}86.
```



```
    46.
```



```
        69.
\05.
```



```
            彷 }69
            ご館70.
```



```
            127.
```



－ 21.
－ 110 •翟
110．
ーシンフ 67.
7.
73.

ய゙Tָּ＊ 29.
27.
27.

理 27.
107.
107.

2． 73.
勺ごき 73.
だごごき，
122.

2
习习 7 71． 99.
99.

25゙？ $58.112 .^{3}$
－ien 124.
－ 58.
ニプラ 42． 65.
67.
：－ 112 ．$^{3}$
际䍒？80． 92.
21.
21.
－
ェーゼำ 53． 112.

T？ 35.133.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ลゴ35. } 133 . \\
& \text { 湤 } 145 .
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - }{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{y} \text { 家 } 35 . \\
& \text { - 59. } 112 . \\
& 58 . \\
& \text { ござが } 36 \text { 。 } \\
& \text { 78. } 78 . \\
& 7 \text { - } 78 .
\end{aligned}
$$

> ジּ 7 •
> 91.
> - 84.
> 而百 26.
> ลジざィ 92.
> 〒ジィ 105.

> ลไี่ 34.41.50.52.69.
> ลา์ 33. 34. 50. 67.
> 73.
> 78.

> ニフT゙: 78.
> • 84.
> ロ? 21. 91.
> ご꾼 21.

> 78.
> ンップンジロ122.
> ジッジっ 78.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 99 \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$

1จวุว 113.
－ 69.
ลּธว

99． 99.
99． 90.
93．2


翟 $93 .{ }^{1} 114 .{ }^{1}$
96．²
78.
131.
87.
－ 142.
※ざった。

는 129.
32．
「 53.126.
26.

100 ．
50． 135.


－ 40 －
78.
28.
32.

フニッ゙ 76.
130.
138.

138.
128.

꾸루ํ 123 ．
50.

ジทi゙ 133 ．
こบַ่า 33 ．
92 ．
לחֵ 45.52 .69.
จ 82.
ージּ 40.92.
40.

บセジ $126 .^{1}$
5 130 。
コロั๋ 130 ．

ロที่ออง 130.
解 123.

าジอ 6 ．
ーブッジき，
ベッジさ45． 55.
コフワンゴ 45.56.
ソージッ 76 ．
下上゙2 52． 69.
曰ip̧̦＊32． 40.

ワブア33． 67.
－ 4 S．
－ค．． 130 ．
そこう 130.

107．
埐 6 ．
5ロ5 26.


$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 92. } \\
& 107.11 \text { 31. } 107 . \\
& \text { 2シ 5. } 144 . \\
& \text { 家 } 34 \text { 。 } \\
& \text { 隹皆 } 144 . \\
& \text { コこ } 96 \text {. } \\
& \text { 芹 } 96 . \\
& \text { E } 144 . \\
& \text { 4. } \\
& 144 . \\
& 144 . \\
& \text { ェจที่า } 144 . \\
& 23 . \\
& \text { 妵等 } 100 .
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 21 . \\
& 21 . \\
& \text { ニי! } 107 . \\
& \text { ・ブッ } 107 . \\
& 72 . \\
& \text { - } 6 . \\
& \text { it } \\
& 32 . \\
& 33 . \\
& 67 .
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 108 . \\
& \text { - } 32 . \\
& \text { הּ } 32 .
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 80 . \\
& \text { T唁 72. 95. } 107 . \\
& \text { 皆 72. 103. } 104 .
\end{aligned}
$$



```
    でるゼp 43.
47. 45.
    42.
        -
        防 34.
        范 31.
37. 74.31 קישּוּ
        跎 38. 40. 63.
        令解 38.
    こク塄 64.
    ーラッドア 112.
    诌䍝 80.
- 43.
    -ix? 6.
    ภที่า 67.
    ภารา 6.
    107.
109.
107. 36.
```



```
    ำำ \(126 .{ }^{1}\)
    - \(32 .{ }^{2}\)
        ח구 \(32 .{ }^{2}\)
        53.
    ロジท 73 .
    36.
        ジา 72.
        ロ4. 67.
    6.
    96.
    96.
    - 112.
```

|  <br> 32. <br> 69． 92. <br> 69. <br> 69． 92. <br>  <br> 32. <br> 50． 81. <br> 23. <br> 125. <br> 125． 125. <br> 125. <br> 92. <br>  <br> 37．2 80. <br>  <br> 70. <br> ב゙ּׁ 68.99 .112. <br> 75 ． <br> 隹隹 40.108. <br>  <br> 108. <br> 108. <br>  <br>  <br> 59．1 <br> 86 ． <br> 40． 108. <br> 105. <br> 43. <br> 44． 105. <br> 91. <br> 108. |  |
| :---: | :---: |

## NOTE.

The author offers the following explanation of his me in § 42. ${ }^{1}$

In the Indo-Germanic languages the heightening, wL called Guna by the Indian grammarians, consists in prefixi: $a$ to an accented vowel, especially in open syllables, in c that the vowel may receive a fuller sound; hence $a, i, u$ bea by beightening $\hat{u}$, ui, cuu. That the same process has taken in modern English and German appears, when we compare mc with old or middle-high German, and written with spoken Eng In both cases we find a tendency to lengthen vowels in accented syllables, and to give the letters $i$ and $u$ the soun $a i$ and $a u$ (and in English of $i u$ ).

## CORRECTIONS.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { page } \\
& \text { 8, ninth line below read 'Olshausen'. } \\
& \text { 31, sixth line below read } \\
& 35 \text {, fourth line above read } \operatorname{Ti}_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 38, eighth line below read } \\
& 39 \text {, sixth line below read 'forms'. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 91, tenth line below read } \\
& \text { 112, second line below read }
\end{aligned}
$$


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ The seeming arguments for an internal inflection are very much weakened when we compare the Hebrew with the Arabic
     qattala, 'aqtala. Another class is shown even by parallel Hebrew forms to be a later formation, e. g. the participle p qûtél, from quattil in the intransitive verbs and the mediae $\dot{r}$, has the same form as the third sing. masc. of the perfect, compare
     consonant is either merely euphonic or has arisen from the original reduplication of the root. Several vowel changes indeed (e. g. in the passive) have not yet been explained, but judging from the analogy of the apparently internally inflected German, in which all the variations of the root can be mechanically explained, this is due to our unfamiliarity with the old Semitic forms.
    ${ }^{2}$ Essentially the same principiles underly the formation of all the different languages. Isolation, agglutination and inflection

[^1]:    1 *"Ausführliches Lehrbuch der hebraiischen Sprache", Leipzig 1866, I, §. 2S-37.

[^2]:    1*See Gesenius, "Gesehichte der hebräischen Sprache", 123. 2 *" $A$ usführliches Lehrbuch der hebraiischen Sprache, mach dem Toode des Verfassers herausgegeben und mit ausführlichen licgistern versehen von J. Mühlau", ! Bde., Leipzig 186'心-68.

[^3]:    1 * Comp. §§. 39, 42.

[^4]:    1 *There are only a ferr cases in which 7 is pointed with Dāgeš, compare Delitzsch on Prov. iii, 8 ; xiv, 10.

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ In the initial sound of a word only the copula, rég beforo half vocalized syllables, with seǧvā or hatep, and the labials $b, p, m$ is resolved into $\hat{u}$. There are no other cases in Hebrew, where the initial sound of a syllable is a vowel without 'älep.

[^6]:    ${ }^{1}$ The heightening is merely a mechanical strengthening of the rowel through an $a$, which is placed before it and which finds its complete analogy in the Indo-Germanic Guna and the pronunciation of vowels in new high German and modern English.
    ${ }^{2}$ Olshausen accepts for such orms, as sûsêhem etc. the heightened sound $\overline{\ddot{a}}$ (from $\mathfrak{a}$ ) and appeals to the anomalous instances of vocalization in Ezechiel ( $\S .7$ ); nevertheless his position is contradicted by the contraction of $b \bar{a}-h e ́ m$ to $\Xi \exists \bar{a} m$, the forms $h \bar{e} m$, hēn, the Samaritan pronunciation and the analogy of all the other Semitic languages.

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ The above-mentioned $i$ shares the same fate as the origiual $i$, c. g. $\ddot{\ddot{O}} \boldsymbol{\square}$
     according to s. 32, , 2. The remarkable transition of $i$, which has arisen from $a$, to $\hat{i}$ in the hi'pil has perhaps originated according to ant erroncous analogy from the conjugation of the verbs mediae $r, y$ where this $i$ is phonetically legitimate.

[^8]:    ${ }^{1}$ The present Semitic roots have probably arisen from the original：1）through reduplication，2）through combination with different prefixes and affixes，which also partly occur in the for－ mation of stems and words，comp．תהת sibi roluit，desideravit， compounded of the reflexive prefix $t a$ and the original root $a b$
     3）through a pervasive analogy，which by the insertion of an auxiliary sound rendered the remainder of the monosyllabic roots similar to the others．－The comparatively infrequent Quadri－ litera have likewise arisen from the triliteral roots partly through reduplication or affixion，partly through the mere decomposition of a double consonant as in ココーコ decerpsit from ロココ．

[^9]:    ${ }^{1}$ In general the lengthening of the vowel of the tone-syllable in primitive Semitic is just as readily employed to distinguish the nominal from the verbal forms, as the heightening of the rowel in Hebrew (§. 63).

[^10]:    a For a thorough discussion of this subject seo "1lictrich's Abhandlungen zur hebriaischen (inammatik", Leipzig IStit, S. $121-173$.

[^11]:    ${ }^{1}$ These very difficult forms are perhap's to be understond as follows: h $\hat{1}$ ' (comp. Arab. hura and the ra in suffixes and the

[^12]:    1*According to Fleischer in the passage mentioned ahore the indefinite signification is carlier than the interrogative, S. 149.
    ${ }^{2}$ Just the same kind of formation is found in the IndoGermanic. Comp. in Sanskrit the nom. sing. dêres - daira-sa, deus lic, nom. plur. dêtes, for which the Vedic still has dêvêsus $=$ daira-sa-sa, deus hic hic.

[^13]:    1 * With reference to this Ḥireq compaginis comp. Delitzsch's introduction to Ps. cxiii.

[^14]:    ${ }_{1}$ In Aramaic an elision of the fem. $t$ between vowels in the plural of the stat. absol. can be proved. Comp. Chald. $\curvearrowleft$
     $=$ malkâtan $=$ malka-ta-ta-ma.

[^15]:    1 *This form however does not occur.

[^16]:    1 * Nevertheless both forms of the stat. cstr. dual are hypothetical.

[^17]:    1 * An example which really occurs is ${\underset{T}{2}}_{\substack{2 \\ \hline ָ T y}}$ Ex. xviii, 23.
    2 *See however Jer. i, 10; xlvii, 4, and Delitzsch on Ps. xl, 15.
    $3 *$ Nevertheless in this case, an inserted half vowel, $\breve{a}$,
    
     of a half vowel after the guttural has a different reason from the assumption of an auxiliary vowel in the infinitive, compare §. 55.

[^18]:    1 *The corresponding seventh form of the Arabic verb 'inqatala has its own pass. 'unqutila.
    $2 *$ The author considers the Segôl in this case as a mixed sound, but one can regard it with greater propriety, as an abbreviation of Zere ( $e$ from $\bar{e}$ ), so that such forms as on the same level with

[^19]:    1＊The following forms really occur ジּ Ps．xciv， 3 ；ジさ

